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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

EDITED BY

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER

April, 1919

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EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

APRIL, 1919

I

AMERICANISM THRU AMERICAN LITERATURE

The new insistence upon the teaching of Americanism in our American colleges, especially in the colleges which have been under government control, brings the study of American literature into the foreground as never before. As a major university study undoubtedly it has been neglected, so inadequate does it seem when compared with the long and rich areas of English letters. Until comparatively recently, moreover, many American scholars have refused to consider it as a distinct literature, holding to the belief that the term "a literature" is to be defined as all the writings in a given language. Few take this position today, it may be said. Since the Civil War the United States of America has become as distinct an entity even as England or France, has evolved a soul unique among the nations, and has exprest itself in poetry and in prose that are her own.

In many ways Walt Whitman was our first prophetic soul in the broader and more modern world. As early as 1870 he flung out this challenge to America: "Two or three really original American poets (perhaps artists or lecturers)—would give more compaction and more moral identity (the quality today most needed) to these States, than all its constitutions, legislative and judicial ties, and all its hitherto political, warlike, or materialistic experience."

We realize today that Whitman's *Democratic Vistas* was the voice of a seer, Hebraic and nation-arousing, the first clear, all-American voice after the tempest of the Civil

War. His demand for a new, original voicing of America, the whole sweep of it, freed forever from provincialism, cut loose from Europe and the atmosphere of Europe, a native national literature expressing fully the new western concept of democracy, was partially answered during the period which followed, that new period distinct and individual to which his ringing document was as clearly the salutatory as had been Wordsworth's "preface" the salutatory to the opening nineteenth century period in British literature.

We are awakening to the fact today that the half century between our Civil War and the opening of the great conflict which fired the world was in America a distinct period—our national period, a period when for the first time the nation moved as a unit. America had discovered her soul in the hour of her agony. Before the war there had been sectionalism—New England, the South, the Middle West, California—provincialism, standards diverse, lines of influence as insuperable as the bounds of caste. New England was self-contained and self-satisfied. For a generation her literature was American literature. The South also was self-contained, despising New England as the home of radicals and reformers and busybodies. The West began with the Alleghanies—a region of rawness, vulgarity, anthithesis of Boston, and beyond lay the desert and the Rocky Mountains. The New England period in its literary history was like the period of Augustus in Rome, lighted from the east and bounded on the west by savagery and the Unknown.

The shock of the Civil War made the America that we know today. It shook down the barriers of section and of provincial narrowness; it trained the nation for colossal undertakings; the spanning of the continent with railroads, the settlement of the West, the building of the vast cities of the plain, the breaking of a new Empire into civilization and the turning of it into the granary of the world. All this in one generation—for the first time a National Period.

The voice of this period, its poetry and its prose, we may call now our own. American literature undoubtedly we may call it, not English literature, for English literature is the literature of England, nor may we call it English literature in America, for it is native product ringing with the new soul of the new nation, autochthonic, and as individual as the new American type which had been evolved by three centuries in the free air of a new world.

But distinct period tho it was, our really first national American period, it has not been—we must confess it—a great literary period. It has come very far short of Whitman's dream of what its latent possibilities were. Its poets and its prophets were caught in the tremendous rush of the period and their genius ere they were aware had been turned to the development of the vast material enterprises of the new land. It became a period of transition, of foundations, of organization for a tremendous future just beyond. It was a period of self-discovery, a period when America awoke and for the first time discovered America, a period of crudeness, of adolescent awkwardness, of mistakes colossal, of excesses beyond computation, of problems unsettled,—a half century of garments outgrown, of tasks attempted and completed heretofore believed impossible, of egotism, of unbounded self-confidence, and yet out of it all order, freedom, democracy of a new and vital type, and the new American soul.

And the voicing of the period—its literary product—what of that? Crude enough, we must confess, and yet for all its crudeness our own voice, honest and spontaneous. Our new national literature, new expression of the new American soul, was heard first in the free lands beyond the Alleghanies—"Europe extends to the Alleghanies," Emerson had said in the earlier period—in the rawness of Tennessee, on the flat boats of the Ohio, in the steamers of the Mississippi, and the wild gold camps of the Rocky Mountains,—the new laughter of the west, voice of the individualism of the border,—Lincoln, Longstreet, Mark Twain, and all the others. Then had come the later Whitman,

not the poet of the body who had gone to the camps of the Civil War, but the poet of the new American soul and of the emancipated soul of man, whose first voice was in the "Drum Taps" of 1867. Then like a vision there had opened to America a realization of America—its marvelous beauty as told by Muir and Burroughs and the new out-of-doors school. Suddenly America was realized to be full of romance. Harte and Helen Hunt Jackson discovered Spanish gold in Southern California, Cable found the Creoles of Louisiana, and Johnston, and Harris and Page threw a mellow light over the old days of the South before the war. Everywhere now American themes, American backgrounds, the American soul; Howells and James found manners and social background worthy of their art even in raw America; Miss Jewett and Mary E. Wilkins, and Alice Brown, depicted the New England decline, Riley and Garland and Allen found the soul of the Middle West, Lanier sang The Psalm of the West and made symphonies of the Southern marshes, and Joaquin Miller, a claybank with nuggets, interpreted the western march across the continent. Then had come the later flood of fiction: Crawford, Churchill, Mrs. Wharton, Norris, Davis, and the others, and then the miracle of the short story: Bunner, O. Henry, Jack London, and a school that may not be duplicated or even equalled in any other land. And what may one say of the new free poetry, the brilliancy of the society verse, and the whole chorus of minor singers, many of the individual voices of which would have ranked among the soloists in less lavish times?

To view the period, especially in its fiction, is to view a jungle, the luxuriant growth of a virgin soil, unpathed, unsurveyed. All America is in it; it is our own; its very lawlessness and jungle-like profusion are for us; they show the strength of the soil and the promise of the fruitage to come.

And the period is over: Who may now doubt that? The new period in American literature, the nature of which we may not even guess, has begun. All may be prophets

now, for the air is electric with the promise of the new world that is to come from this travail of nations. America never again can be what she was before 1914. A new future opens, and today we demand with Whitman a school of prophets, seers, poets, interpreters of the new vision of America among the nations. Out of America hope, leadership, vision, and who shall voice it if not her men of letters, her poets, her inspired souls?

The first call is to our colleges and our universities. Where shall we look for vision if not to them? To them has been entrusted the picked leaders of the coming generation: what are they teaching them? They should be holding up a vision of the new American soul, they should answer the questions now trembling on every American tongue: What is this Democracy that the world must be made safe for? Why should America have entered this turmoil in the East? What is it that makes America unique among the nations? What has been the spirit of her past, the dreams of her founders, the ideals of her men of vision? What is the American soul?

I call first of all for a chair of American literature, side by side with the chair of American history, in every college and university, and to fill it I demand not the man whose vision has never extended beyond the vision of his doctor's thesis, and whose ideas of creative work are confined to the editing of some much-edited classic. There must be in every chair a kindred soul, a man of vision, an American who thrills with the past of America and the lofty promise of the years to be.

We can only call for poets, pray for them, agonize for them: we can not create them. And yet, even as we say this, is there not a hope that we may capture them if we set our homes and our hearts in order that we may be worthy of them? May we not in our classrooms awaken some flaming soul that but for our classroom would have slumbered forever? May we not—and this at least we may do—send our young men out from our colleges thoughtful, a step at least higher in their conceptions of life than when they entered?

American literature must be taught henceforth not as a frill, not as a graceful accomplishment or a help toward English composition, but as an interpretation of American life. Every classic that has survived has survived because it emanated from a human soul during a national era. How are we to understand Emerson and Whittier and Hawthorne if we understand not the soul of the period that made them possible? My lecturer will say little about the beauties of style and the mechanics of art, but he will say much of the soul of the age and the reaction of the poet, or the essayist and the novelist, upon the problems of his time. When he interprets Mark Twain he will tell of the romance of the Western march and the new laughter of the West; when he comes to Whitman he will say much of the true meaning of democracy and of the new vital individualism of the new world.

And later, when he tells of the heart of American humor, the romance of the old régime in the South, the decline of New England and the rise of the Middle West,—he will find it all voiced strongly by a whole chorus of novelists and poets, and he will thrill his classroom with the meaning of it. What did Longfellow bring to America? What did Lowell and Holmes? What was the message of Stedman and Aldrich, of Taylor and Stoddard? Who is telling of that in our classrooms today?

No longer may we sit in scholarly detachment treating literature as an esoteric thing apart from life; no longer can we permit our literary output, voice of our own souls, to be coupled with the literature of England. It is time now to draw upon it as our richest possession, to teach its spirit to the new generation, to classify and assess and explain it, and to make its very incompleteness and crudeness a call for a greater expression of the American soul.

FRED LEWIS PATTEE

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II

GEOGRAPHY AFTER THE WAR

Before the war began, the average American college student could not have told what countries bordered France on the east, and he knew nothing of the Ardennes Plateau, the Vosges Mountains, the Metz-Verdun gap or the Belfort route. The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, for aught he knew, might have been a German state, he never heard of the Meuse, Marne, Moselle or Somme, and did not know where Lille was, or that it was a great industrial city. He did not know that an Antwerp ship must sail thru Dutch waters to reach the sea and had not the slightest idea whether Heligoland had a hundred acres or a hundred miles of surface. Alsace and Lorraine were somewhere on the French border and had been wrenched from French control in a great war that was beyond a young man's memory.

No better was the common knowledge of the Alpine range. At this moment most Americans probably assume that the Alps and their highest peak are Swiss, and they could not delimit the French and Swiss borders on Lake Geneva. They have no notion of the Canton of Lugano wedging down among the Italian Lakes, and if they know how the Trentino and the structure of the Adriatic shores influenced Italy's relation to the Triple Alliance, they have learned it thru the daily literature of the war.

That there had been a kingdom of Poland, most people knew and not a few could have turned to Germany, Russia, and Austria, as the despoilers of that nation. It would, however, have been unsafe to inquire whether the Poles gathered more in the basin of the Vistula or of the Oder, or whether the realm ever had a port on the Baltic or ran its southern boundary along the crest of the Carpathians. All these things and more have been learned in the daily chronicles of war, and in the discussions which foreshadowed the coming of peace.

And the Balkans! Here was truly *terra incognita*. Some facts were added to the popular geographic consciousness in the recent Balkan conflicts, but it was the summer of 1914 that wrote Serbia into the memory of the American, outlined the Danube and its shores from the Iron Gate to the Black Sea, and visualized Nish, Monastir, and Salonica. The Italian veneer on the eastern Adriatic, the Slavic hinterland that lay behind and the problems of Albania, Macedonia, and Constantinople threw new light on that rough bridge along which for thousands of years Asia was moving into Europe and by which Europe, notably the Teuton, was seeking to return upon Asia.

Likewise have Kieff, Krakow, Warsaw, Lemburg, Lodz, and Riga come into our view, and it is no longer left to a few students of ethnology to know something of Courland, Esthonia, and Ukraine. Thus place geography, racial geography and historical geography have had big accretions in popular knowledge, nor is this leap in general understanding limited to Europe, Kiau-chau, the islands of the Pacific, the ravages of the Emden, the vengeance taken on Admiral von Spee under the bleak skies of the South Atlantic—all these and the desert and jungle campaigns of Africa and the vicissitudes of Siberia carry us over a world span.

Commercial geography is not behind, in this body of instruction, for which no textbook has been written, no syllabus prepared, and no pedagogue subjected to training. Twenty or fifty percent of substitutes, Mr. Hoover's admonitions, a government price for wheat and a shortage of ships have taught us that wheat is not raised everywhere, and could be had, where sorely needed, only by strenuous endeavor. We have seen Roumanian wheat confiscated, Russian wheat locked up, Australian wheat tied up, and American wheat running the gauntlet of submarines, while French women and old men toiled harder and English conservatism welcomed tractors in the home fields, all to put white bread into mouths that must have it. Thus we have gotten a world consciousness of wheat by learning in

the school of experience, and we shall not soon forget one of the staple themes of the geography of industry and trade.

There has recently departed for Europe, on the ship that carried the President of the United States, a company of specialists, comprising many geographers, ethnologists, historians, and students in related fields, who for some months have wrought in the building of the American Geographical Society in New York. The homes of geographic societies are supposed to be somnolent places of refuge where those who love solitude and maps can be sure of finding both. But in the building on Broadway, industry has reigned and several cartloads of documents and maps, the labor and gathering of months, went down to the George Washington on their way to Versailles, a large manifestation of what was foreshadowed, when two South American countries referred a boundary quarrel to the arbitration of the Royal Geographical Society. It was the Royal Society which a generation ago thrust geographical instruction into the ancient fabric of Oxford and Cambridge, under the conviction that there ought to be some decent knowledge of this science among the citizens and the statesmen of the greatest empire in the world.

Before the war it would have been impossible to find a respectable literature dealing with international boundaries. Neither historian, geographer, nor publicist had written adequately on this great and historic theme, which presents today the most delicate problems that rise for solution. A few students of geographic influence on human affairs had prepared some fragments of discussion but the archives of treaty makers and boundary commissioners hid in dark corners of government departments the data of frontiers. All this is different today, a stream of essays and volumes having for the past four years flowed from the English press. The source and inspiration of this achievement is in the expert membership of the Royal Geographical Society and the same sorts of data have been gathered, no doubt in a large way, by the geographers and others in their busy

months at the home of the American Geographical Society.

A geography committee has for two years held its place among the working forces of the Council of National Research. As the dozen geographers composing this committee are widely scattered and can meet but once or twice a year, an improvised earth-science committee was gotten together in Washington to deal promptly with geographical and geological problems raised during the war. But the tasks of the general committee reach over wider spaces and into the years of the future and these tasks have much to do with geographic education. The work of this committee along with that of the other branches of the National Research Council is now to be reorganized and placed on a permanent peace basis.

The chairman of the general committee has prepared, and published thru the Harvard University press, a Handbook of Northern France, well fitted for the study of American officers and men, and a good companion of one's guidebook in future travel in the war-scarred parts of France. The same geographer later prepared a guide to excursions in the neighborhood of Aix le Bain, for the use of American soldiers who might be resting there.

Another member of the committee has published many papers and an important volume on the military operations of the war as related to geographic features. Another has prepared a wealth of papers setting forth the relation of weather and climate to the ongoing of the struggle, on the various fronts. A member of the committee, from the United States Geological Survey, has, with his collaborators, brought towards completion two of a projected series of regional descriptions, planned primarily as an aid in military defense, but destined to fill a far larger place in educational geography. One of these regions thus treated comprises Maryland and Virginia, and the other region is New England. Every studious teacher of geography knows how poor we have hitherto been in such regional descriptions. With few exceptions one looks in vain for a

volume dealing with an American state, on the lines of modern geography. There is good reason to expect these gaps to be filled within the coming ten years.

To a member of this committee has been assigned the duty of preparing an extended report on the status of university geography in Europe and America. This rather elaborate undertaking will be carried on with the assistance of fifteen or more collaborators in both continents, many of them being ready to undertake their part as soon as released from special tasks imposed by the war.

This report will describe the upgrowth of modern geography during the past half century, and will show the achievements of leading countries and the facilities for study now available in the universities of the old and the new world. Particularly will the progress and the needs of our own country be set forth. Geographers hope to get the needs of our own country as regards geography before administrative officers and educational leaders in American colleges, universities, and public school systems. The special war committee on geography in Washington has among its many tasks prepared and published thru the Yale University press an extended syllabus of the Geography of Europe as an aid to instruction in American colleges.

There is no doubt that geography should have a larger place in military training than it has had in the past, and the way to this goal seems opened by the hearty recognition given in the present war to the services of a number of American geographers both in America and on the French front.

Another end to be obtained, in and out of the schools, is an uplift in the quality and an extension of the use of maps. The United States Geological Survey, as is well known, has in progress the making of large scale atlas sheets covering thousands of quadrangles of the national domain. The general geography committee is urging more rapid progress on these maps to the end that parts of our country may not have to wait decades or scores of years for this

aid, important in teaching, in transportation and in the use of natural resources.

The college student is not alone in his ignorance of geography. This science has been thought a study suited only to children and a former commissioner of education in a great state enforced therein a program which closed instruction in earth science with the sixth grade. Happily such narrowness is not wide-spread, but the need of better elementary teaching presses everywhere. No large share of our geography teachers is yet equipt for free, strong, and inspiring work. The day of mere place geography has gone. There is a physical and a human geography and both are causal and evolutionary in spirit, and in method. Land forms and soils are products of development, they show stages of unfolding and they exert influence upon plant, animal and man. Rocks and land forms, soils and climatic conditions furnish a basis for plant life, and in the total of these factors appears the environment of the animal, reaching up to man. Geography picks up these great relations where geology and biology drop them, and gives them a higher synthesis as regards man and the earth. Being thus complex and difficult, the call is clear for an advance in teaching. Whence can it come?

There are highly trained and efficient men and women in the geographic departments of normal schools, but that they are still in the minority is to be feared. The trouble is at the top. The colleges and universities are not sending out more than a fraction of the trained teachers that our normal schools and high schools need. Geography in high schools has been much on the rocks. To apportion the blame is thankless, but no doubt the geographers are open to their share of it. No geographer is without the conviction that the subject should be available in modern form thruout the whole series of educational years from the lowest to the highest. The universities should send forth ample numbers of teachers equipt in physiography, in climatology and in commercial and regional geography. This will solve the problem for the normal schools and high

schools, which in turn will meet the needs of those who teach the subjects in the elementary grades. It is for this reason that it is sought to put before American educators those models and ideals of geographic training and achievment which have been developed in Europe.

The National Council of Geography Teachers was organized in 1914, with the approval and aid of the Association of American Geographers. Thru the efforts of its secretary, branch councils are now cooperating in the greater number of states in the spread of special literature, the holding of meetings and the upbuilding of sound and progressive geographic sentiment. In organic cooperation with the National Council, is the Journal of Geography, a teachers' periodical issued for several years from Teachers College, Columbia University, later from the University of Wisconsin, and now taken over by the American Geographical Society in New York. The production of textbooks and other geographical material of education has kept fair pace with the movement of the subject in societies, journals and in several colleges and universities, all these agencies together furnishing the machinery for fresh progress in geography, and all stirred to an awakened interest in the countries, the peoples, and the resources of the world.

The war has brought the earth, the interrelations of the earth and man, and of man with man, into our consciousness as never before. The open road to this kind of knowledge for the mass of mankind is thru geography in the schools. Now is the time to make the subject worthy of the call that has come to it.

By the necessities of the war the nations have undertaken cooperative action in a manner never before known. Averting wide-spread starvation, the world has fed itself on a scale of reasonable efficiency in one of the most troublesome times that history has seen. Enterprise on the land, conservation in the home, and judicious use of the means of transportation have unified hundreds of millions of men in this most fundamental of human undertakings. There is and is to be a new agriculture. The soil and the

farm have gained fresh dignity. War and victory, peace and its aims, are in a large way founded upon the world's output of food. Here and in the related problems of clothing and shelter, human interest ever gathers and no man is fitted to do his part who knows only his own acre, his own climate, his own market or his own country. Here lie the problems of irrigation and drainage, of timber and forest supply and of conservation for future generations. The agricultural explorer, the specialist of the experiment station, and the farmer in his fields, are vital factors in this adjustment which is to bring out of every land and from every acre the largest gain for the tiller and the greatest good for all. Geography is the only subject, having place in the education of all youth, which can offer some knowledge in this realm.

The war has vividly exhibited the financial interdependence of all nations. American consuls in foreign cities have for years protested against the failure to provide American banking and credit facilities in regions where trade was desired and they have decried the American sloth which did not learn foreign languages and acquaint itself with alien needs and tastes. The war has started a new era in American relations to the rest of the world. Our money, our food, our technical skill, and our manufactured products will be wanted everywhere. The American traveller will no longer look longingly but in vain to find the American flag in ports across the seas. A world league, if it is to be and whatever it may be, will involve relations of communication and transportation, of production and manufacture, and of markets and economic dependence. The character of populations, their distribution and movements mean a world of close and neighborly fellowship, the only alternative to friction and bloodshed. Geography offers much of the knowledge that will soften prejudice, reveal and avert our difficulties and direct our progress.

Men are getting out of their narrow valleys, away from their island seclusion and down from their mountain recesses, being released from sectionalism into universal

relations. Let us take a lesson from that power which prated much of *Welt Macht*, which rose almost to the pinnacle of trade, and lost itself in a foolish war, going down to unpitied doom on the rock of its provincialism, knowing the minerals and land forms of other lands but not the inner resource and true mind of those whom it gaily set out to overwhelm.

It does not seem a presumptuous hope that geography, telling faithfully the story of earth and man, may help to make cosmopolitan the hundred millions of American citizens and to plant the American kind of freedom in all lands.

ALBERT PERRY BRIGHAM
COLGATE UNIVERSITY

III

EDUCATION TOWARD THE FORMATION OF MORAL CHARACTER[1]

Society, as it becomes more complex and develops higher standards of individual and social well-being, is always requiring more of its schools—those specialized educational agencies to which are progressively transferred functions of training and instruction heretofore performed incidentally or informally thru life itself, apart from the school. During the last ten years all progressive educators have been industriously studying and planning the development of vocational schools to supplement, in response to the insistently voiced demands of many social agencies, the historic forms of general or liberal education which had already been freely developed in public schools. Now that we have achieved substantial results in laying the foundations of public vocational schools, I predict that the next great question which will, for many years, engage the efforts of the public, and of educators who can think and plan, will be that of the moral education which can produce in individuals the moral character required to meet the needs of a highly developed democracy in the twentieth century.

In facing the problems of what will in this paper, for the sake of brevity, be called character education, it is of the utmost importance that the National Educational Association, thru its members or thru select committees, give especial attention to the following questions: (*a*) What are present and future urgent needs for better character education than we now get thru the home, the church, and other social agencies than the schools? (*b*) What do our public schools now accomplish towards character education? (*c*) What are some of the possibilities of improved

[1] Notes of an address by Professor David Snedden, of Teachers College, Columbia University, at the meeting of the National Education Association at Pittsburgh, Pa., July 4, 1918.

character education in the schools in the near future? (*d*) What are needs of further investigation and research?

a. It is unnecessary here to discuss at length the ever-present need in a progressive democracy of new and advanced types of character education whereby the largest practicable numbers of individuals shall, according to their natural powers and probable responsibilities, be predisposed and fitted, in their conforming behavior as well as in their self-initiated activity, to serve the ends of the higher social well-being. The demands of the war have simply made more clear what many have surmised before, namely that any people who wish to preserve democracy of social organization, while at the same time becoming more socially efficient in meeting the contingencies of twentieth century civilization, are confronted by problems of character education of the most difficult kind.

But we do not yet see as clearly as we should that these difficulties lie very largely in the years of advanced childhood and adolescence. Up to ten or twelve years of age, the child is, owing to his dependence, the predominance of his instincts of submission and conformity, and the relatively strong place occupied by home and parents in his social environment, still easily controlled by the methods of authority which are as old as the human race itself.

The acute problems of character education for our age and conditions begin when the youth, at ten or twelve years of age, begins to share actively in social life outside the home. Here he finds himself in the atmosphere of independence and free judgment produced by democracy and the scientific spirit of our time. It helps us not at all to say that he is not ready for this new freedom. The simple social fact is that such freedom exists in the social surroundings of at least ninety-five percent of the youth of America today. The democracy of control and free diffusion of knowledge which we cherish for our adults have created for our children, rapidly advancing in power of action and in spirit of initiative, conditions under which the historic controls of unrationalized authority break down.

At ten or twelve years of age the girl almost always, and the boy often, is still plastic and responsive to the controls of the only social pressures that greatly affect them—the home, the school, and sometimes the church. Within six or eight years at most, a majority of the girls and almost all the boys have, during their active waking hours, come to live in a social environment which is little influenced by standards of home, church, or even school in the narrower academic sense. In this environment, in curiously mixt ways, independence of judgment, disregard of authority as such, and liberty of action, prevail and are even cherished, except within, and with reference to, the limited social groups which, under the influence of instinct and custom, and sometimes strong leadership, constitute the central facts of social life for most young persons. For them these six or eight years usually constitute their period of initiation into self-supporting employment, power to live almost completely away from the home, readiness to take part in political movements, and the beginnings of courtship and acquaintance with the opposite sex. In times now past, so far as democracies are concerned, these years would have been subject to guidance, shaping, even drastic control. They still are so, largely, under the customs and ideals prevalent in governmental and religious autocracies. But in our democratic societies, we have not created the machinery or even discovered the methods whereby we can effectively meet the new conditions which have followed in the wake of the evolution of personal freedom of thought and action. Here lie the most acute needs and the most pressing problems of character education.

b. But let us not make the mistake of undervaluing or misinterpreting present accomplishments of the schools in character education. It is probable—to the present writer it seems certain—that in the process of making, out of youths from twelve to eighteen years of age, citizens of the type required to carry our civilization, we shall need the aid of special procedures in existing schools and perhaps even special schools apart from these, of types as yet

hardly more than faintly foreshadowed in the minds of our educators. But in a very real sense, our existing schools do the work now expressly committed to them fairly well as respects both character education and also other forms of education. Upon the American high school, as an educational agency, for example, with its one and one-half million adolescent pupils, there are laid, so far as one can discover from the directions given, and overt acts performed, by controlling authorities, just two types of work and responsibility: first, to teach, in accordance with well-understood standards, certain subjects giving knowledge and skill, such as algebra, history, chemistry, typewriting, English language, civil government, and the like; and, second, while doing this, to insure, by means of the personalities and examples of teachers, machinery of discipline, and some influence exerted on these voluntary activities of the pupils which intimately affect their school life and work, that the school as a little social world shall be itself orderly, harmonious, cooperative, refined, elevating, and, withal, democratic. Do we explicitly ask the school to do any more than this?

Now is it not a fact that, in view of the demand thus explicitly made, and the means provided, the American high school is doing these tasks fairly well? As to whether the first type of work—the teaching of the subjects as now oriented and defined—is worth doing in the serious spirit now exacted, the present writer entertains some serious doubts. But as to the importance of the second type of work, the maintenance in the school of a good social life, he has no doubts whatever.

Let American teachers, as well as the American people, take no small credit to themselves for the relative excellence of the social life of our schools. Year by year the public exacts that our teachers shall be yet more inspiring in their personalities, clean in their morals, refined in their manners, democratic in their attitudes. The old school vices—bullying, obscenity, destructive mischief, lying, cheating, brutality of teachers, servility of pupils—have been wan-

ing for many years. The typical primary school today is one to which children go enthusiastically and unafraid and from which they come uncowed, unbrutalized, unroughened. The typical school of the upper grades carries a sad load in its enforced attendance of unadjusted pupils, its unvitalized curriculum, and its unspecialized teaching force; nevertheless, even here, the machinery of control and the personalities of teachers maintain a little society orderly enough for the work that can be done. The typical high school is, of course, attended only by the select of the community; nevertheless, we can well wonder at the orderly and attractive social spirit which prevails. Coeducation, sometimes a thorny shrub, does, in spite of all, probably bear many good fruits, especially for a world in which men and women must hereafter live and work in harness together in ways not familiar to earlier generations of others than manual workers. The modern high school has learned wisdom with regard to the voluntary activities of its pupils, and has cooperated in providing some wholesome channels for their profitable development. The control of conduct in these schools is not undemocratic—at least there is a comparative absence of the arbitrary, militaristic domination of learner by master which has been the characteristic of schools serving times and peoples remote from the ideals of democracy.

c. Our schools, then, we may say in summary, are now reasonably effective agencies of character formation, so far as that character is essential to the social requirements of the school group life itself. But is this any adequate guarantee that the men and women finally produced will be properly socialized for the larger responsibilities of life? It certainly is not. Laymen and educators alike are prone to fall into the error of assuming that the moral ideals, moral insight, or even moral habits, definitely formed under, and in relation to, one social situation will automatically and surely carry over into other different and remote social situations. We have to be reminded many times that a man may be honest in his family and dishonest in

business; loyal to club and disloyal to country; industrious in studies and a slacker in wage-earning employment; courteous to his equals and discourteous to his inferiors; a promise-keeper to his close business associates and a promise-breaker in politics; a man of honor with his male colleagues, of dishonor with women.

Sometimes the virtues produced in the social environment of the school carry over into later life and sometimes they do not. In view of our very imperfect knowledge, it is difficult in these matters to separate aspirations and unwarranted assumptions from facts and realities. The wish of the shallow thinker is here often father to his thought. Superficially considered, at least we should expect the standards of dress and personal tidiness required in high school to carry over into later life because these are standards largely developed during adolescence in all cases. Habitual forms of behavior established between boys and girls during the high school period will probably continue operative, for the same reasons, at least as between social equals, for many years. On the other hand, it may well be doubted whether the standards of fair play maintained on the playground can be expected to carry over into adult business and politics where conditions and incitements are necessarily so different. We expect that the boy who has displayed (not necessarily been trained into) industriousness and initiative in the high school will continue to display these qualities in adult life; but the opposite expectation—that the boy lacking in application and industry in school will not improve or change when he comes under the social pressure of working for rewards that he greatly desires—is so often negatived by experience that we can as yet draw no reliable conclusions.

The possibilities of improving the character education of the schools are, therefore, of two kinds. We may in specific respects improve upon the procedures already reasonably good, by which we now make the school an effective little social community towards the service of its own ends; and we can seek to discover ways and means

whereby we can use the school life of the pupil to produce the qualities now most required in adult social life and which existing agencies fail adequately to produce.

We are continually at work, of course, in that fitfully experimental spirit which characterizes conscious evolution in education generally, on the improvement of school society. In spite of temporary set-backs, we are increasing the rewards of public school teaching, and therefore the attractiveness of the profession (if the courtesy-title can yet be allowed) to persons, especially unmarried women, of fine personality and good character. Public demand is steadily enforcing higher standards of social order in the schools—standards representing the very difficult resultants of humane and sympathetic government on the one hand with unoffending behavior on the other. Experiments in establishing some form of self-government for school or classroom, in providing more abundant outlets for surplus physical energy in play and sports, in surrounding school life with the social sedatives of recreational reading and play, in providing thru practical arts studies for the orderly expression of workmanship instincts, in forming parents into conferences whereby home and school control can be made mutually to reinforce each other—all these, and scores of other old processes being improved or new ones being invented, represent, in their composite form, movements of much magnitude looking to the conscious progressive evolution of the school, as a society functioning for the provision of the instruction and training which is the primary purpose of its existence.

What can the public school do—in any of its grades or types—as conscious character education towards the requirements of the adult society which yet lie far ahead? Let us frankly admit that here we are, if we consider the matter scientifically at all, still in a dark continent. There is no dearth, in this continent, of the blind alleys of superstition, dogma, and easy generalization. The literature of moral education, as it is usually called, is overwhelmingly charged with half-baked mysticism and metaphysical specu-

lation. It is doubtful if easy moralizers, theological or other, are destined to give us much safe guidance in our explorations in this field during the next few years. We have much to hope for those whose happy union of optimistic idealism from human society, as it might be, with a disposition to face social realities frankly as they are, enable them successfully to promote profitable experiments and sane programs of constructive action. From our sociologists, too, and especially those delving deep in social psychology, we have probably much to expect.

For the purposes of a character education that shall function specifically in good adult citizenship, it is not certain, as intimated above, that we have much more to expect from schools for younger children, pious opinion to the contrary notwithstanding. Certainly, our more promising opportunities are in schools dealing with youth from twelve years of age upwards. Here have already been begun some promising developments. Within moderate limits, we believe now that, given a mastery of means and methods yet to be worked out, we can enable the youth to obtain some intellectual apprehension of the structure and functions of the community social life in which, a few years hence, he must play his part. By means of social science studies yet to be developed and probably by studies of history pedagogically organized in ways as yet only beginning to be understood, we can give the prospective citizen really vital appreciations (not to be mistaken for habits, knowledge, or ideals, but perhaps involved in the making of these) of the complexity of the social machinery of which he is a part, and of the importance of his playing a worthy role therein. In this transition adolescent age, we realize more, perhaps, than did our forebears, the importance of those ideals which, deeply felt and concretely perceived, have the effect often of becoming the incitements of definite and persisting motives. We do not yet know how to produce these ideals as a steady crop; but, having in mind the tremendous influence of rare personalities, of certain types of vital literature and other art, and of new social groupings,

like the Boy Scouts and boys' clubs, as these agencies, like variable stars, shine brightly for short seasons, we are slowly developing the conviction that there are yet to be discovered pedagogic ways and means whereby, over long eras and on a large scale, we can realize the valuable results for which we are now indebted to volunteer and, almost of necessity, more or less sporadic effort.

The immediate future seems full of pedagogic promise here, partly because we are seeing the possibilities involved. We suspect that the moving picture has introduced into the lives of our adolescents formative influences of great moment for good or evil towards the standards of adult social behavior. If we but open our eyes, we can ascertain the large part played by the fiction which is, in vast quantities, trivial or substantial, uplifting or debasing, purveyed by news-stand and public library. In fraternity and club, our sons and daughters of greatest natural promise form little societies of such solidity, that a kind of socialization takes place almost too rapidly, and sometimes with the effect of producing arrest of what would otherwise be promising social developments towards usefulness in the larger societies of the world. Teachers are looking with admiration on scouting as a means of assisting adolescents normally to be inducted into the standards of ideal and act which are approved by virile men, especially on the plane of the elemental social life where the adult of necessity plays a strong and visible part in wholesome small-group life. Some educators, forced by circumstances now easily understood, to consider the possibilities, on the one hand, of military training in our public schools, and, on the other, of a period of compulsory army training in young manhood, have easily risen to the conception of an enriched period of compulsory service in a variety of the functions of good citizenship, rather than in armed defense alone.

From these and many other sources, we educators are slowly building up a body of convictions, resolves and partial insights, which will yet serve as the fertile soil out of which workable and effective programs shall spring. We are be-

ginning to see our present high school curriculums in their true light—as withered and almost unserviceable survivals of ancient practises and mistaken conceptions of educational means. We have ceased to have faith in the traditional organization of our schools for our children from 12 to 14 years of age; and as we proceed to put into effect reorganizations already planned here, we shall undoubtedly open the way for the beginnings of some really vital character education towards the ends of adult life. A thousand signs in the field of adolescent education point the way to new analyses of educational goals, to new developments of means and methods, and to new achievements of results on a plane much higher than that on which we have heretofore worked.

d. Progress in education in the past has come as the result of a slow trial-and-error process, varied occasionally by the minor revolutions wrought by the dynamic powers of some creative thinker or exceptionally forceful executive. Of progress due to scientific inquiry, carefully planned experimentation, or the execution of deliberately matured programs, education has almost none to show as yet. For this condition of affairs we need not necessarily reproach ourselves. It is only within the last couple of centuries that engineering, medicine, war, and agriculture have been, even in part, lifted from the planes of tradition and faith varied by half-conscious evolutions due to the slow accretions of changes resulting from trial-and-error processes. But education deals with forces and conditions so obscure that even the essential underlying sciences—psychology and sociology—are still in a state of very imperfect development compared with the sciences, such as physics, chemistry, and biology, that are essential in engineering, medicine, war, and agriculture.

Nevertheless, every forward-looking educator eagerly anticipates the day when educational aims and processes can be systematically improved and advanced by methods that can properly be called scientific. He foresees the time when new problems can be so defined and stated that

systematic study of their various elements will be possible; when reasonably exact descriptions of purposes, procedures, and findings in the investigation of these problems can be documented and communicated because of the existence in education of a fairly definitive and comprehensive technical terminology; when, succeeding to the tentative solution of problems, systematically carried out, and when, once the worth and practicability of new objectives and methods shall have been demonstrated, applications of these valuable results to practise in general can be discriminatingly made and with some assurance as to final outcomes.

We are at present hardly within sight, in any concrete and comprehensive sense, of the ideal of a system of education being consciously and scientifically improved. But we have come to the stage of promising beginnings. Where some of the adjuncts of education are concerned—lighting and ventilation of classrooms, cost accounting, and the like—recent developments have been in a measure along scientific lines. The effectiveness of different methods of training or instruction in the more formal of primary school studies, as well as objectives in at least two—spelling and arithmetic—have recently been subjected to tests conceived in scientific spirit and so executed as to give large promise of valuable results in practise in the near future. Contemporary efforts to supplement existing public schools of general education by others designed to offer to the rank and file of workers certain specific forms of vocational education have been made at least partially effective by inquiries of a reasonably scientific character.

Towards furthering the extensions and readjustments of education for the formation of moral character, as discust in this paper, are there practicable scientific inquiries, well-sustained experiments, systematic applications on a generous scale of objectives and methods of already demonstrated worth? Must the further development of programs in this field await the outcome of endless exchanges of half-metaphysical dialectic, and the blind fumblings of

innovators driven by force of external conditions or lured by a faint inner light? Surely, in these days when social consciousness in individuals, and even in many groups, is so wide-awake, we can hope for something better. The National Education Association has not ignored its responsibilities and its opportunities in this field heretofore; but assuredly its duty is far from being done as yet.

Under the auspices of the National Education Association, as well as of other educational organizations, can be formed committees created especially for the discovery, analysis, and documentary statement of specific problems of character education which lie ahead of us. Is it not true that there now exists almost a dearth of such work in any scientific sense?

The members of all teachers' organizations can do much to cooperate, by moral encouragement and by discriminating study of findings, with the endowed and other voluntary agencies now working on the problems involved. In time, if not now, certain of the results of the work of these organizations will have reached the point where their definite application in school programs will be safe and desirable. In such work the cooperative efforts of thousands of educators is to be expected.

From time to time, due to the generosity of philanthropists or enterprise of administrators, experimental work on a large scale will be possible. Educators appreciative of scientific method can encourage such experimentation and quietly urge that it be planned and conducted in accordance with scientific method. They can give such experiments time to produce some definite results instead of indulging sometimes in hasty criticism and rejection, and sometimes in equally hasty adulation and acceptance.

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IV

HUMANIZING EDUCATION[1]

Education is sensitive to such a world-movement for democracy as the one thru which we are now passing. Already it is evident that our educational methods and ideals have been affected by the war. In the first place, we have gained a deeper sense of reality in all our thinking. Last spring the president of a western university said he was perfectly willing for his students to substitute potato-planting for analytical geometry. Many of us academic folk, indeed, took some needed lessons in the newer culture. The classical man verified or disproved Virgil's comments on horticulture and agriculture; the mathematical man approved the prophet Habakkuk's remark—"I stood and measured the earth;" and the literary man, like Maud Muller, raked the meadows sweet with hay. Like Antaeus, we touched mother earth and felt stronger; we got a new sense of relative values and along with it a refreshing addition to our stock of self-respect.

Education in America, like democracy, had its long experimental stage. We had inherited a vast stock of traditions from the aristocracy of learning. On them our earlier leaders had been brought up, and we consequently looked askance upon new scientific and vocational intruders. We conceived that all persons in order to be educated must pass thru the same mill, must have upon their brows the hall-mark of an inherited culture. To be a gentleman one must have the classical training of his English forbears. At least he must have been exposed to it. It did not always take; the victim was sometimes temperamentally immune or was protected by the working of the law of self-preservation.

[1] Part of an address delivered at the Virginia Conference on Education, Roanoke, November 30, 1918.

In its way the old cultural education, with all its virtues, was as selfish as the new vocational education. It was also as dogmatic. There was only one road to heaven, and that was via Greece and Rome. The relatively few who travelled it were God's elect, and the multitude were by implication condemned to outer darkness. But the multitude did some thinking for themselves, and being in the majority and having a surer sense for the immediate rewards and practical values of life, subordinated training for mental discipline to training for a livelihood. This they called education for efficiency. If the old cultural education was afflicted with the disease of social and intellectual exclusiveness, the newer efficiency education is cursed with the sin of contemporaneousness. It speaks lightly, sometimes scornfully, of the past and centers its attention on the present and the immediate future. It would substitute current periodicals for the standard English classics, and it would persuade us that the contemporary short story is more worth while than the older types of prose literature. It glorifies journalistic English and is impatient of the finer qualities of style. It values studies in direct proportion of their immediate application and pleasurableness.

A formula for the newer education has of late been furnished us in the now famous dictum of Mr. Flexner: "What is taught, when it is taught, and how it is taught, will depend altogether on what is needed, when it is needed, and the form in which it is needed." That is, know what you want and then go straight after it. No educational sporting with Amaryllis in the shade. Be sure you are right and then go ahead. But does one always know what one wants? Evidently the efficientists do. Let us have no experimentation. The categorical imperative is inherent in the divine law of personal utility. Mental discipline is a pleasant fiction in studies for which you will have no practical need! Mental discipline, we are told, which is gained in one study has no connection with another of a different kind; the thing is not transferable. What a

pity it is that our brains are made up of water-tight compartments, and that we must begin everything and pursue everything independently of everything else! If this be true, then specialization is a terrible thing. Each brain cell is an infinitely repellent particle to every other. Across horrible silent spaces one cell wirelesses to another cell: Stay at home and attend to your own affairs! Or as the discredited classicists would say: *Noli me tangere!*

Have we not overemphasized this efficiency business? Have we not talked too much about an education for doing things and too little about an education for fuller living? Outside of our purely economic wants there are many others just as necessary. The danger in vocational education pure and simple is that it tends to isolate a man and make him selfish and lonely. The danger in cultural education is that it tends to do exactly the same thing. A compromise is needed. Instead of an education for efficiency I would emphasize the demand for an education for beneficent living. That means training in character, in vocation, in powers of appreciation, and in altruistic energy.

The newer education after the war must give a larger place to old-fashioned character training. We thought we had outgrown that. But have we not found that the real cause of this war was a deification of power and a minimization of human right and brotherhood? Has selfishness not been enthroned by the side of technical skill? Did not the blind worship of scientific efficiency deaden the moral sensibilities and render obsolete the ancient faith in duty? The German universities prated much about truth, but neglected the weightier matters of the law. The result was a spiritual atrophy, out of which came at last the deadliest form of national apostasy the world has ever known.

This war, despite its infinite horror and agony, has taught us the value of the primal virtues of life—honesty, frugality, and sacrifice. At a terrible cost we have gained a juster idea of the relative value of a man and a dollar. In the

long run it is a nation's aggregate of character that counts; and no form of education is worth while that does not seek first of all to instil into youth the fundamentals of patriotism, morality, and personal honor. No theory of education can permanently justify itself which leaves out of account the need of quickening in youth the perception of the real values of life. Has any satisfactory substitute for the cultural studies been discovered when it comes to a question of inspiring youth with noble ideals?

One defect of our modern theory of education is that it yields too readily to the immediate inclinations of youth. The older education insisted that overcoming difficulties was an essential part of mental training. The moral backbone was stiffened by doing hard things, wholly apart from their practical value. Translating Homer was potentially as heroic as fighting in the Trojan war. Somehow modern education lacks tonic quality. Too much time is spent in impressive talk about methodology and terminology, and too little energy in getting the thing actually done by the pupil. Said Dean Briggs to the fond father who had just brought his well-dressed and agreeable son up to college: "And what shall our accomplished professors study for your son?"

Recently I had a letter from a president of a large cotton mill asking my advice about educating his son. He said he expected to send him ultimately to a school of technology, but that he thought the boy ought first to take a cultural course. For this view he assigned two reasons: first, "I want him to have a broad foundation of liberal training;" and second, "I believe by that time he will be in better position to decide what line of work he would prefer to follow." I had no advice to give him. He sees the thing as I see it.

The cultural basis is the best for scientific education. It has been noted that graduates of technical schools without this foundation rarely become great scientists, even in a practical way. They are lacking in imagination, in a larger resourcefulness, in that range of knowledge and sympathy without which no man, however acute and

technically well versed he may be, can truly be called great. For the great man is the most human in his interests, and it was no mistake in the older generation to call certain character-forming studies the humanities.

Now that the war is over, we shall need the broad vision and the most enlightened leadership. The process of readjustment and of reconstruction is the most difficult of all tasks. After the high adventure, how dull it will be to pause, to make an end, to rest from the excitement, the peril, the thrill, and the daily challenge of it all, and to return to the normal ways of life! And it will not be the same world to which we return. Many of the things we once thought of the highest moment will seem trivial after this baptism of blood and this fiery ordeal in the making of a new democracy. There will be no place for selfishness or any other form of littleness, but only for cooperation and mutual sympathy. Spiritual values will count for more. Man can not live by bread alone. He not only needs to store up money for rainy days, but he must accumulate intellectual and esthetic resources against dark days. The bread and meat question is acute enough, heaven knows, but poverty of spirit, barrenness of soul, form the worst of all blights for the growing man and woman. The boy must not sell his educational birthright for a mess of pedagogical pottage. He must at least have a fair chance at redemption from the sordid and the material.

The whole history of education is simply one long record of shifting emphasis. One age esteems beauty, and embodies its conceptions in classic column and perfect statue; another sets its highest value on the religious, and finds its expression in cathedral-building; another esteems philology, and glories in deciphering precious manuscripts and in the rebirth of classical lore; another delights in adventure over perilous seas, and excels in discovery and the drama; another revels in scientific invention, and fills the world with time-saving and ease-inviting devices; still another glories in the practical, and tests all things in the crucible of present workableness. In this last age

we have been living, and we have been setting great store by mere efficiency. But let us not talk about educational efficiency as if it were educational sufficiency. We need vocational efficiency *plus* and cultural education *plus*. Neither one by and of itself will meet the demands of this new era, or indeed of any era. Neither should isolate itself from the other or entertain a feeling of contempt for the other.

There will be a new emphasis in education. We must conserve the best of the old while we are experimenting with various panaceas whose exploiters claim for them virtues that cure our ancient human ills. There are some things in the newer education we may safely predict after this turmoil of war and this chaos of counsel. We shall, for one thing, learn more deeply the lesson of cooperation. We shall inculcate more insistently and less perfunctorily the cardinal virtues of patriotism. We shall set greater store by the enrichment of personality and the training of character. We shall have a keener sense for the things of the spirit. And we shall no longer seek to divorce the cultural and the vocational; for we shall more truly humanize education in the new democracy which is being born of infinite pain and travail of the soul. We shall at last come to feel that greater than any man's calling is the man himself, and that that education is the best which makes for the broadest sympathy and the fullest life.

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V

EDUCATION AND THE QUALITATIVE STANDARD[1]

Again the world fronts a new orientation after the long habit of fixt direction has left us indisposed to any change in course. So, periodically in the past, has come earth-shaking catastrophe and a world ready for the making-over; so some of us predicted calamity even in the midst of the fat complaisance of the first decade of this century, but neither history nor prophecy quite prepared us for the lightning-thrust, the prolonged and monstrous agony, the miraculous and instant crumbling and universal victory that place the last five years in the category of the historically improbable, the humanly impossible. I fear we are little prepared for the task that rises up before us out of the wide ruins of an era; Europe shattering before our eyes, a civilization discredited and impotent in its ruin; the foundation of all things overturned, and the red menace of new barbarian hordes threatening us with a new Dark Ages. A world forged new engines of destruction and incredibly multiplied the old, and now these must be transformed from menace to beneficence. We who were neither fighters nor makers of munitions, we educators, artists, philosophers, find the task before us of transforming what we have made for the occasion of war; we turn back, now we are at liberty to emerge from our seclusion, back to the old enginery that was ours before the war,—and as we touch it we know it has gone with the rest and shows now as ancient and inopportune as the various plunder of an archeological museum.

How the X-ray of war reveals the inner fallacies of the varied components in what we once (or was it our fathers before us; it is very long ago?) called civilization! Verily,

[1] Reprinted by permission from the English Leaflet of January, 1919. A paper read before the New England Association of Teachers of English in Boston, Mass., December 14, 1918.

in this searching and mordant light we find ourselves naked indeed, for what we had treasured is dust and dead leaves; what we had discarded shows now very desirable but no longer easy of attainment. Yet the old must be discarded, the "older old" acquired again; for a new world is to be built up, and history shows only too well that the greater danger lies not in the destructive process but in the recreation. I say the old must be discarded, and by the word I mean not what was old to us five years ago but what then was contemporary, for the war has hurled back into remote antiquity the things that then were of the moment. To this there can be no return, for the war came to show us what it was—and now we know. Of the two grave perils that face us, either of which means ruin and a new Dark Ages, I am not sure that reaction is not worse than the insane anarchy of Bolshevism. There is little to choose between them, for both are fatal. We are no longer Calvinists and we know that free will is an operative force; the choice is with us whether we will and accomplish a new Renaissance or a new Dark Ages. Say we will the first; it is to be achieved neither thru return to the *status quo* nor a surrender to the Red Terror out of Russia, but by means of that middle course which avoids both yet loses none of the warnings and the lessons of the war. Where this course runs we may find if we return to that "older old" we coldly rejected that we might build up our own proud modernism that has past in the red horror of universal war.

What part are we, as teachers, to play in this decision and this reconstruction? It is commonly said that we here at home need not concern ourselves with this; the soldiers back from the war will direct affairs during the next generation. This will probably be so, but full assurance of redemption does not lie in the fact. We believe they will bring back with them a new sense of justice, a new passion for real liberty, even a new sense of righteousness, but that knowledge and wisdom and judgment will match with their vision we do not know, and history gives us reason to doubt. There is a grave danger that they will fall into the hands

of the "old gang" in politics, sociology, religion, education, to be exploited by them as they have exploited other generations, so to be turned from the direct course and their ardor made of no avail.

To speak colloquially, the "old gang" is still doing business at the old stand, and with renewed activity. The ink was not dry on the Armistice before they were busily at work, and their activities increase daily. Reaction on the one hand, sentimental anarchy on the other, are ready to receive all new-comers and nullify their ardent impulses, and they will be strong men who resist their blandishments.

With this problem we teachers, as such, do not come in direct contact. Ours is the generation that follows, the children now growing up who in ten or twenty years are to play their part in the reconstruction that even then will not be accomplished, granted that it is reconstruction and not a post-Roman degeneration that confronts us. Here the opportunity and the power are great, and the duty and the privilege are commensurate therewith. I am not one of those that believe in the omnipotence of education; to me this seems one of the superstitions we inherited from the XIXth century—that most grossly superstitious of all centuries. It was closely allied to that other superstition of mechanistic evolution now so completely discredited by a revealing war. Education "draws out," but it does not put in. It can not change character, nor can environment; and character is the essential thing in man, its development the supreme object of education. There is essential difference in character between individuals, between families, between races, and no environment, even were it as beneficent and fertilizing as the environment of the last century has been sterile and forbidding, no education however spacious and illuminating, can change this character and bring either reversal or equalization of race-values and of character-potential. There is no more vicious heresy than that of the numerical equivalent. It is only in pure mathematics that one and one necessarily make two. One Joan of Arc and one Mrs. Eddy do not make two of anything; they remain

to the end of time one of one thing and one of another. Only by eliminating every quality that differentiates them from undifferentiated matter, can that identity be achieved which makes them two.

Education does not transform, but it may and should perfect. It can not make a silk purse out of a sow's ear, but it may prevent a silk purse (in potential) from falling to base uses, and it may make the ear of the humble *sus scrofa* a good organ, not a bad. This is its function, the development of inherent powers towards the exaltation of character, but it has not infrequently failed to do this; Dotheboys Hall and Mr. Wells' High Cross School are more than episodes in fiction. Education may be a bitter deterrent, the defeat of vital impulse, the arrestor of potency, —the which is a very great tragedy indeed.

At this moment we all are bound to weigh each his own work, and we are not forbidden to estimate those that belong to others. Looking at things frankly, then, with the fear of God before us, as it must be at such a moment as this, can we say that the specialized, secularized, mechanized education of the last generation has been wholly guiltless of the great debacle that overtook modern civilization at the moment of its triumphant achievement? Can we say further that, whatever its record for the past, it is wholly the right thing, as it then stood, for the rebuilding of the world? We are bound to scrutinize the evidence closely, for the part education is to play in the determining of the future is hardly to be too highly estimated.

I venture to say that education, together with every other element in life, was quite measurably touched, and in some cases vitiated, by what I call the Three Errors of Modernism, that is to say; imperialism, materialism, and the quantitative standard. You have asked me to speak on the influence of the last of these, but really the three are all so intertwined they can hardly be isolated the one from the other. The quantitative standard is the eternal enemy of real culture, for it substitutes the lust for power, with force as its means of operation, for the passion for perfection,

which is the mark of all great civilization, and finds its expression, as it finds its goal: in the development of character. You may know a crescent from a decaying civilization by many marks, most of which, particularly under the latter condition, we disregard; but I know of none more fundamental than just this, of the dominance either of the quantitative or the qualitative standard.

What bearing has this on teaching, and especially on the teaching of English? Just this. Adoption of the quantitative standard means above all things the loss of all sense of comparative values, and in the end the abandonment of the real things, the following after the false. It comes to this at last, that we lose sight of the end in our scientific enthusiasm over the means so that these become an end in themselves and we close our careers as inventors, collectors and manipulators of mechanical toys. Has there been anything of this in the teaching of English as it was in the years before the war? A little, I think, tho I gain my evidence at second hand, for I am too old to remember how English was taught me (if it was) some forty years ago, and what I have seen of late has been thru the mediumship of my children and younger kin.

Now it may be I hold a vain and untenable view as to the object of English teaching, even as I am told my view of education in general as having for its object the development of character, not mental Pelmanism, specialized information, or the capacity for getting on in the world, is vain and untenable. However this may be, I am willing to confess that I believe the object of teaching English is the unlocking of the treasures of thought, character and emotion preserved in the written records of the tongue, and the arousing of a desire to know and assimilate these treasures on the part of the pupil. I am very sure that English should not be taught as a thing ending in "ology," not as an intricate science with all sorts of laws and rules and exceptions, not as a system whereby the little Children of the Ghetto, and the offspring of Pittsburgh millionaires, and the spectacled infant elect of Beacon Hill can all be raised to

the point where they can write with acceptable fluency the chiselled phrases of Matthew Arnold, the cadenced Latinity of Sir Thomas Browne, the sonorous measures of Bolingbroke or the distinguished and resonant periods of the King James Bible. Such an aim as this will always result in failure.

The English language is the great storehouse of the rich thought and the burning emotion of the English race, and all this, as it has issued out of character, builds character when it is made operative in new generations. There is no other language but Latin that has preserved so great a wealth of invaluable things, and English is taught in order that it all may be more available thru that appreciation that comes from familiarity. There is no nobler record in the world: from Chaucer thru Shakespeare, the English Bible, Lord Bacon, down to the moderns, is one splendid sequence of character-revelations thru a perfect but varied art, for literature is also a fine art, and one of the greatest of all. Is it not fair to say that the chief duty of the teacher of English is to lead the student to like great literature, to find it and enjoy it for himself, and thru it to come to the liking of great ideas?

In the old days there was an historical, or rather archeological, method that was popular; also an analytical and grammarian method. There was also the philological method which was quite the worst of all and had almost as devastating results as in the case of Latin. It almost seems as tho English were being taught for the production of a community of highly specialized teachers. No one here would go back to any of those quaint and archaic ways digged up out of the dim and remote past of the XIXth century. We should all agree, I think, that for general education, specialized, technical knowledge is unimportant and scientific intensive methods unjustifiable. For one student who will turn out a teacher there are five hundred that will be just simple voters, wage-earners, readers of the Saturday Evening Post and the New Republic, members of the Fourth Presbyterian Church or the Ethical So-

ciety, and respectable heads of families. The School of Pedagogy has its own methods (I am given to understand) but under correction I submit they are not those of general education. Shall I put the whole thing in a phrase and say that the object of teaching English is to get young people to like good things?

You may say this is English Literature, not English. Are the two so very far apart? English as a language is taught to make literature available. "Example is better than precept." Reading good literature for the love of it will bring in the habit of grammatical speaking and writing far more effectively than what is known as "a thoro grounding in the principles of English grammar." I doubt if the knowledge of, and facility in English can be built up on such a basis; rather the laws should be deduced from examples. Philology, etymology, syntax are derivatives, not foundations. "Practise makes perfect" is a saying that needs to be followed by the old scholastic defensive "*distinguo.*" Practise in reading, rather than practise in writing, makes good English composition possible. The daily theme may be overdone; it is of little use unless thought keeps ahead of the pen.

Nor need the teaching of English be desiccated to dullness in order to preserve its dignity. History for a time was taught after this fashion—history, the most sensational and romantic and highly colored of all subjects!—because it confined itself to documents, facts, dates and other hampering impedimenta. Then comes Chesterton who writes a history of England from the Romans to King George V, in 285 small pages, containing, if I remember correctly, some six dates in all (three of which are probably wrong), and history lives again. I have just been reading a book called *Expressive English* by Mr. James C. Fernald, which does for the teaching of English something of what Chesterton did for history. It is more or less along these lines I think English may be taught in the future.

My plea then is for the recognition of character-development as the prime object of education, and for the teaching

of English after a fashion that will reveal great thoughts thru the great art of English literature and the perfectly illogical but altogether admirable English language. Sometimes I think I should like to undertake a course in the teaching of English, using as textbooks only the King James Bible, three or four of Shakespeare's plays, and selections from Swift, Bolingbroke, Burke, Thackeray, Cardinal Newman, Matthew Arnold, Stevenson, Coleridge, Keats, and Browning. If I could have time enough, and my scholars did not turn Bolshevik, and I were not put under legal restraint, I am sure I could produce admirable results.

After all it comes in the end to the moral equation. Let us teachers work for the new vision of a new righteousness that is to redeem the world. If we do this, and can communicate our visions to our pupils, the methods will develop themselves. Our duty is to make our students think. The day of mechanical toys is over, brought to its ignominious end thru the mechanical Juggernaut of Modernism we have made with our own hands. The spirit alone giveth life; the qualitative standard, the passion for perfection, once more rises triumphant over the discredited quantitative standard, the lust for power thru force. Ingenious devices and technical efficiency lead only to the thing the whole world has risen in arms to slay, and by the grace of God has slain---and bound again for another thousand years.

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VI

TRAINING FOR DISABLED SOLDIERS AND SAILORS

The United States Government is today confronted with no greater obligation than that of adjusting the unusual conditions created by the war with regard to many of the men who are now returning from the battlefronts of Europe. By far the most important task will be that of developing to usefulness the men who have in some way been handicapt by the loss of hands or feet, or hearing or sight. After these men will have been put into physical shape and be sufficiently strong to take up some kind of work, it is the aim of the government to give them a training which will prepare them for some useful occupation—so that it may not be necessary for them to become a burden to the community and to subsist on charity.

It is a well-established fact that only a very small percentage of the men so maimed could not be reclaimed to a certain amount of usefulness. While it may not be possible to train a handicapt man to regain his full powers, it is quite probable that many of them will lose only a certain percentage of their efficiency after they will have received the training contemplated by the Government.

Besides the training-school for these men, it will also be necessary to establish a bureau which will deal with the vocational advisement and placement of the disabled soldier and sailor. Such a bureau will determine the capabilities of the applicant from various viewpoints and his fitness for certain work. It will be necessary, first of all, to ascertain the candidate's general qualifications. If he has been engaged in some industrial or commercial pursuit previous to his enlistment, it might be possible to have him adapt himself to the same or some other branch of his previous occupation. Where this is not possible—on ac-

count of his peculiar handicap or general unfitness for that kind of work—it might be well to try him for some other kind of activity. To keep the man to the work in which he has previously been engaged, or even in some other branch of the same industry, would, of course, be most advantageous all around. It might minimize the efforts in his training; it would tend to keep from overcrowding other trades; and it would not interfere with the rules and regulations of existing trades unions. Necessity, however, should not be set aside by any other factor, and the best interests of the candidate in question should be the most important condition to consider.

Every man appearing before the bureau officials is presumed to possess certain qualifications. To these should be added his previous training and experience. These may be called his assets. From these assets we are to deduct his liabilities—which will be, first of all, in the form of his physical handicap, created by the ravages of the war, and, secondly, by certain natural deficiencies of his own.

The bureau for advisement and placement, composed of men possessing the proper experience and qualifications, will be able—thru a thoro examination—to establish the status of the candidate. When, after carefully weighing all conditions regarding the candidate, this is sufficiently established, the man should be recommended for a certain kind of training. The second task, then, of this bureau would be to cooperate with the training-schools of the government, and advise the authorities of those schools of the kind of training to be given to each one of the candidates. If, on report of the officials of the training-school, some candidate does not show any promise of ability in certain directions, he may be tried—after another examination by the above bureau—in some other field of endeavor. The first few weeks of his training in any particular work should be regarded simply as an experiment; and, if the candidate shows adaptability for his work, his training may then be approved by the bureau and he be permitted to continue until completion. Under these circumstances, a man

will be given every possible opportunity to find himself in the particular work for which he is best fitted. In fact, this vocational guidance should prove so beneficial as to neutralize some of the deficiencies created by the maimed condition of the body.

Another task of the bureau would be to negotiate with many of the industrial and commercial establishments of the country regarding the employment of these men who are to be trained for useful work in these various establishments. It would be well to get the advice of the heads of these firms with regard to their particular wants in the labor market—so that the men may be trained on practical lines and that they may fit into the plans of these industrial concerns. It stands to reason that, in order to get the best results, it would be necessary to take into consideration the fact that these handicapt men can not be made as useful as others who are physically sound. Therefore, the matter of compensation should be so arranged as to result beneficially to employer as well as employee.

It may, however, be well to note that in many cases the physical handicap will create only a negligible depreciation in the man's ability; and, considering the good effects produced by proper vocational guidance and training, there should be little, if any, change in such cases from the usual compensation for the work.

In negotiating with the buyers of labor, it should be kept in mind that the main object of the bureau will be to create a place of usefulness for the maimed men, and, therefore, we must eliminate any element which might seem like charity or favoritism. Under these circumstances, it would be necessary to allow for a certain amount of independence on the part of the handicapt employee—such, for instance, as would make him feel that his usefulness will not end with his severance of employment in the particular establishment where he was first placed by the bureau, or that, in holding his job, he does so because of his value to the employer and not because the employer is actuated by patriotism or sympathy.

Altho it would be necessary for the bureau to find places for the men who have finished their course of training, it should not be incumbent upon it to continue its protection after a man has been working for several years. It is expected that the man will then have attained sufficient resources to look after himself. However, it may continue to act as a free employment agency, and recommend men to such positions as may come before its notice.

Heretofore, employers of labor have generally been dealing with men physically sound, and have paid wages which called for 100 per cent of efficiency. Since, under these new circumstances, it will rarely be possible to attain 100 per cent of efficiency, in the strict interpretation of that term, we have a new problem before us. Employers will have to be convinced that in employing these handicapt men, they will not suffer financially or commercially, and all ways will have to be found where such men may actually prove their value beyond any doubt. That it is possible to make these men valuable to employers of labor, let us take one of the useful trades (the printing trade) and analyze it for this particular purpose.

We may divide the printing trade into 17 different phases of activity, and examine how these handicapt men may be employed in the various branches of the trade and their percentile loss of efficiency in each branch thru various forms of handicap.

DESCRIPTION OF THE OCCUPATIONAL BRANCHES OF PRINTING

1. *Estimator.*—Work consists of figuring costs of materials and time and furnishing prices of printing. Loss of efficiency due to loss of one arm, one leg, or even both legs, is comparatively slight.

2. *Layout Man.*—Work consists of planning jobs and advertisements. Ability to write, draw, and design is necessary. Not required to stand or move around in search of materials. Loss of efficiency due to loss of one leg, or even both legs, comparatively slight.

3. *Job Compositor.*—Work consists of setting type of various sizes and faces. Requires considerable moving around. Loss of efficiency due to deafness or loss of one leg almost negligible. Loss of one arm or both legs would almost incapacitate man for this work.

4. *Proofreader.*—Work consists of detecting errors in the product of printers. Requires thoro grounding in essentials of grammar, spelling, and structural English. Does not require moving around. Loss of efficiency due to deafness is considerable, as proofreader requires a copy-holder to read to him from copy for his comparison with proof. Loss of one arm, one leg, or both legs would decrease efficiency only slightly.

5. *Stoneman.*—Makes up and locks up forms of type. Requires much standing and moving around. This work could be done by a deaf person or one who has lost one leg. A man can not be useful if he has lost sight, one arm, or both legs.

6. *Foreman of Composing Room.*—Work is supervisory in character. Could be done by deaf, one-armed, one-legged, or legless person.

7. *Foreman of Press-Room.*—Work is supervisory in character. It could be done by deaf, one-legged, legless, or one-armed man.

8. *Machine Operator.*—Work is similar to operating typewriter. Workman is enabled to sit down. Work could be done by deaf, one-legged, or legless man.

9. *Platen Pressman.*—Work consists of making ready jobs on small presses. Workman required to stand and use both hands. Could be done by deaf or one-legged person.

10. *Cylinder or Automatic Pressman.*—Work consists of making ready on cylinder or automatic presses. Deaf person could do the work, but with a loss of a certain amount of efficiency. Great skill required. Workman required to stand and use both hands.

11. *Web Pressman.*—Work consists of operating newspaper presses. Deaf person could do the work, but with a

loss of efficiency. Loss of sight or one limb would prohibit doing work of this character.

12. *Printing Salesman.*—Work consists of soliciting printing business and submitting estimates. Could be done by a person with loss of hearing, one arm, or one leg.

13. *Proprietor.*—Executive work. Could be done by a person with loss of hearing, one arm, one leg, or both legs.

14. *Straight-Matter Compositor.*—Work consists of setting plain matter, usually on country newspapers. Deafness or loss of one leg would not lower efficiency. Loss of both legs would not materially reduce capacity for productions, but would reduce efficiency, owing to necessity of requiring assistance in moving about.

15. *Feeder on Platen Press.*—Work consists of placing sheets of paper in press and removing same after they are printed. Requires both arms and hands. Deafness or loss of one leg would not decrease efficiency. Loss of both legs would reduce efficiency, owing to necessity of assistance in moving to and from press.

16. *Feeder on Cylinder Press.*—Work requires skill in placing large sheets of paper to guides previous to printing. Deafness or loss of one leg would not decrease efficiency. Loss of right arm would prove a hindrance, but work could be done if left arm is retained. Loss of both legs would decrease efficiency to a great extent, unless a seat attached to press (which could easily be done) were provided.

17. *Paper-Cutter.*—This work requires the cutting of paper on either hand lever or power paper-cutter. Both hands are required. Deafness would decrease efficiency. Loss of one leg would decrease efficiency slightly. Loss of both legs would incapacitate.

It will be seen from this enumeration that the printing trade, like many other trades, has a great deal to offer in the proposed reconstruction work which the government is to take up.

It might be added that some of the branches of the trade here enumerated have been taught in some of the schools

of the country. They have been taught, in most cases, as supplementary to the regular training in the shop. It has been firmly established, however, that the subjects could be taught with success and be made to be of positive benefit to the student.

Almost all other trades may be arranged in the same way as the printing trade for the practical purposes of teaching the crippled soldiers and sailors.

In order to get the most beneficial results, it would be necessary to employ experts of every trade taught—not only in the training-school, but also in the bureau which is to take up the vocational advisement and placement of these men.

If an industrial survey were made for the purpose of discovering the best opportunities for cripples in the industrial field, it would help to systematize the trades into branches of activity and show in what particular branches these disabled men could best be used. This industrial survey may include visits to the factories, manufacturers' associations, trades unions, and editors of trade journals. Valuable information may be had from all these sources, and may be applied to good advantage.

If the placement officer were to come to the employer with a systematized arrangement similar to the one arranged for the printing trade, it would be a good deal easier to convince him of the value of the trained cripple for the work in his establishment.

The duties of the bureau, however, should not be considered as finished with the placing of the man. It would be necessary, for some time, at least, to follow up the fortunes of these people. In most cases, these men may become sufficiently independent not to require any further protection; but there may be expected certain cases where men will have to be taken care of for some time after they have received their first job.

It is quite possible that, after a disabled man has been trained and placed, he will not be able, because of his handicap, to earn the normal wage necessary for his maintenance.

In a case of this nature, it would be necessary for the bureau to recommend certain adjustment to be made by the government which will keep the man from want.

Altho this matter of charity is something from which all desire to get away, we must realize that, probably in a small percentage of cases, that will come into calculation. It is unavoidable. The bureau will be trying to help all the men to help themselves; and, so far as it will succeed in this, it will be of material benefit. But where this will not be altogether possible, it would clearly be within the province and the duty of the government to help to take care of these men who have sacrificed their efficiency in its service. Besides, it would be to the interest of the government to keep these men from becoming public charges and perhaps even derelicts.

Vocational guidance of this kind should result in time in the solving of this great problem confronting this country and should gradually tend to eliminate the detriments to the individual and to the community created by the war. It is also hoped that this vocational guidance, which has come as a dire necessity, will in time develop for general uses—so that this work, which is contemplated to relieve a temporary condition, may show its lasting and permanent benefits on a much larger scale. For it stands to reason that, if people generally were to choose the occupation best fitted for them—which is now rarely the case—they would not only benefit themselves but also the community at large.

One of the important factors in the work of reconstruction is the cooperation of the public. Altho the public is sympathetic, its sympathies are usually misdirected, because it has not made an intelligent study of the conditions. The people are ready with alms, where this is a matter which should be eliminated as much as possible. If thoughtful consideration were given to the subject, the general tendency would be to make the cripple a useful citizen. The duty of a bureau for advisement and placement of the

disabled soldier and sailor is to institute a campaign of public education on this very important subject.

Another matter for serious consideration would be that of establishing a research department for the purpose of studying the work which has been done by other institutions. Such a department could become very helpful in bringing before the bureau the good points which have been brought out by other organizations and which have been found useful for adoption. It would also bring to light the mistakes which have been made and which should be guarded against. The results of the investigations of this department should prove of great economic as well as practical value.

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VII

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

REFLECTIONS ON THE REPORT OF THE BRITISH COMMITTEE

In many respects the report of the committee appointed by the Prime Minister of England "to enquire into the position of modern languages in the Educational System of Great Britain,"[1] is one of the most remarkable documents ever published on an educational topic. They began work on August 26, 1916—undeterred by war, and after months of painstaking work including a visit to all the universities in Britain, brought in conclusions and recommendations, some of which are quite radical in character and all of which are very interesting to note.

While naturally conditions here are somewhat different, and while, of course, there is always apt to be difference of opinion on these matters, nevertheless I believe that certain of the findings of the committee have great suggestive value to members of a nation of similar speech and literary traditions. Undoubtedly changes are needed in our educational system; and the time to make them would seem to be the present.

Difficult as it is when the whole field of discussion seems to be taken up with commerce and politics, it would appear to be a supreme duty of educators to see that the public should not lose sight of matters concerned with our life and our civilization, the very reason why we went to war. Especially is this necessity pressing with regard to humanistic studies.

[1] Report of the committee appointed by the Prime Minister to inquire into the position of Modern Languages in the Educational System of Great Britain, published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1918. The report (while it contains some reservations supported by a small minority) is essentially unanimous and is supported unanimously (except for a few minor reservations) by all the professors of modern languages in British universities.

THE NEGLECT OF MODERN STUDIES

Past conditions at Cambridge University outlined by the report have a familiar sound: "Instead of meeting the contemptuous attacks on the courier tripos (*i. e.*, the Medieval and Modern Language Tripos) by the sound rejoinder that every highly developed language affords abundant scope for the exercise of distinguished talents, that the history of France or of Italy or of Germany offers an endless field for profitable study which can only become effective thru a knowledge of the indigenous language, and that it is of vital importance that the great European peoples should be better known here, the supporters of the new scheme looked about for adventitious supplements to enhance the 'scientific' value of living languages. Classical scholarship, tho not neglectful of historical, political, legal, philosophical, and literary study, had somewhat fallen away from the tradition of the Renaissance and had come to regard language too much as an end in itself. Accordingly the ballast thrown in to weight the vernaculars of France and Germany was mainly philological. Medieval authors were to be studied not for their literary or historical value but as throwing light on the evolution of the languages. The history of Germanic speech was to be pursued back to Moeso-Gothic; the history of the German people was treated as negligible. The growth of French from Low Latin was of infinite importance; the growth of the French people from the ruins of Roman Gaul was ignored during the pursuit of Romance philology. The literatures were regarded as specimens for analysis or objects of classification. Even the accurate knowledge of the modern languages as such was inadequately honored; and a high place in this Tripos was no guarantee that these 'easy languages' had been mastered." (Report, hereafter called R., p. 4.)

In a good many other institutions the great attention paid the classics was the reason for the neglect of the modern studies.

In the United States the neglect thereof in the main may be ascribed to the scramble for a commercialized edu-

cation towards which science and mathematics, for example, seemed more helpful. Before Germany exemplified them so vividly, the dangers of scientific and technological education were perhaps not so obvious. Britain avoided these to a greater extent, but in a way that we would hardly adopt now, *i. e.*, concentration on the classics.

Unquestionably the public must be convinced, if any real progress is to be made. There has been willingness to accept inferior quality and unwillingness to pay the price, but that can be eradicated by proper measures.

The value of modern studies is summed up by the report under the following headings:

THE BUSINESS VALUE

"In a great part of our foreign trade a knowledge of languages, a knowledge of foreign countries and of foreign peoples will be directly and abundantly remunerative." (R., p. 10.)

This is equally obvious for the United States with its extensive commercial relations, but just as in England, the business man has been apathetic with regard to existing sources of supply and also to the desirability or necessity of advocating thoro study. Linguistic preparedness is needed if the opportunities awaiting us are to be seized to the fullest possible extent.

MODERN STUDIES AND THE INCREASE OF KNOWLEDGE

"No country can afford to rely on its domestic stores of knowledge. The whole civilized world is a cooperative manufactory of knowledge. In science, technical and pure, in history, antiquities, law, politics, economics, philosophy, new researches are constantly leading to new discoveries, new and fruitful ideas are giving new pointers to thought, new applications of old principles are being made, old stores are being rearranged, classified, and made available for new purposes. In this work all the civilised countries of the world collaborate, and in no branch of knowledge, abstract or concrete, disinterested or applied to the uses of

man, can the specialist neglect the work of foreign students. To obtain access to these sources of knowledge some languages are more useful than others, but many have at least a limited utility. The knowledge contributed by foreigners to the common store is useful to commerce or industry, but most of all it is needed in the universities which have all learning for their province."

This general condition can best be prevented according to the committee by a thoro knowledge of one language first, since a second can afterwards be attained by the student himself with comparatively little outside assistance. This is a cardinal doctrine of the committee.

Our tendency has been certainly in the direction of a smattering of several languages, one after the other or taken at the same time, except in rare cases. A correction of this condition presupposes a definite revision of the condition of part of the high school educational system.

VALUE OF KNOWLEDGE CONCERNING FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND PEOPLES

"A democratic people requires an instructed people." * * * * "The masses and classes alike were ignorant to the point of public danger." (R., p. 11.)

Was this not our own position before the war began? Is not the possible existence of such a condition still a grave matter in view of the great movement toward a League of Peace and the spread of democracy? Certainly even some of our most enlightened citizens (enlightened, that is, according to past standards of education) have failed in important foreign missions to acquire for us information and to bring back judgments which were of vital importance. Even at the present time of writing certain newspapers, whether wilfully or not, are flinging about firebrands of opinion on various questions concerning foreign nations including our allies, which are not based on sound (or in some cases any) knowledge of the real facts.

In the S. A. T. C. the idea of the War Issues course was a brilliant testimonial to the military value of such informa-

tion. Surely academic authorities of all classes must be at least as vigilant from their enlightened position.

"Ignorance of the mental attitude and aspirations of the German people may not have been the cause of the war; it certainly prevented due preparation and hampered our efforts after the war had begun; it still darkens our counsels. Similar ignorance of France, greater ignorance of Italy, abysmal ignorance of Russia, have impeded the effective prosecution of the war and will impede friendly and co-operative action after the war is over. We need a higher level of instruction in those whose duty it is to enlighten us; we need a far greater public well informed and eager to understand; we need in all some interpenetration of knowledge and insight. The gradual dissipation of national ignorance is the greatest aim of modern studies. They can only work thru the few to the many, thru the many to the multitude. But neither the higher instruction of the few nor the broader instruction of the many, nor the dissemination of sound views in the multitude can be safely neglected in a democratic country. In this field modern studies are not a mere source of profit, not only a means of obtaining knowledge, nor an instrument of culture, they are a national necessity." (R., p. 11.)

Does not this condition prevail also in America? Even of France, which is perhaps the foreign nation we love best, has not our real knowledge been somewhat similar to that of the British, of which the report says: "Hundreds of thousands of British citizens travelled in France before the war, but only a minimal percentage got any knowledge of the French people, because the others could not converse with the inhabitants in their own language. Of those who knew the language only a fraction had the historical and literary knowledge and the general enlightenment to make the best use of foreign travel and residence." (R., p. 11.)

Our new position in world politics and in world commerce demands knowledge of this kind. The old isolation served to excuse laxity, but that is passing even more rapidly than is generally realized. We need to be prepared for associa-

tions of various kinds with foreign nations, not of course to lose one jot of our own nationality or to imitate foreigners but to be able to understand the civilization of others and to make them understand ours.

VALUE OF MODERN STUDIES FOR THE PUBLIC SERVICE

The usefulness of modern studies in the parts of the government concerned with foreign relations and in the diplomatic service, which will have an even more important role from now on, is obvious. The direct action which Great Britain proposes to take is shown in the following quotation from the report:

"The systematic study of one or more countries with their history, economics, and the like, as well as their languages, would be an excellent preparation for a career in the Foreign Office and Diplomatic Service; and, if our suggestions are adopted, we may hope that courses for such study will be provided in all our principal universities." (R., p. 12.)

As we reflect upon the needs of our own diplomatic service which in the past has too often depended upon political rather than expert qualifications, it would seem that our needs are no less.

The British report strengthens its case by a letter received from Lord Cromer shortly before his death in which he says: "The conduct of public affairs in Egypt was constantly hampered by British ignorance of foreign languages, especially of French." (R., p. 12.)

The committee finds that for many reasons Modern Languages should be well known to the officers at least of the army and navy, that in the past the situation was not satisfactory at all, that the remedy lies in having the candidate-officers well grounded in the modern languages at school.

I presume that it is not to be doubted that there have been similar defects in the personnel of the American army, which might have been more serious for us in this war had we not been able from the start to secure almost

unlimited aid from France and England. In case of any general scheme of universal training the need for linguistic training will be still more extensive, and the schools and colleges of the country may very properly be expected to give thoro instruction in at least one modern language. The training would of course, among other things, afford discipline in the spoken language. Such training demands adequate time, and, in particular, concentration upon one language until it is really mastered. This will cause certain changes of a pretty definite—I was almost about to say sweeping—character, as every teacher of modern languages well knows. Yet for the one reason of national preparedness alone, even if there were no other reasons, it must be done.

VALUE OF MODERN STUDIES AS A MEANS TO GENERAL EDUCATION

"It is in the possession of such an idealistic aim that the strength of classical studies lies. The life and thought of Greece and Rome were revealed to the men of the Renaissance. They said and rightly said: 'This life was better than ours; these thoughts are higher than ours; let us see what we can learn from Greece and Rome.' They studied; and modern civilization, modern culture, spring directly from their studies."

This applies to the great modern civilizations with increased force. This ideal should be held before those engaged in the modern studies. Among the humanistic studies, which afford an adequate counterpoise to materialism, they will play their part and play it well. The foundation for these must be laid in the high schools, then the universities will be able to complete them with advantage.

The university instruction must be stimulating and inspiring in the extreme. For this reason it must not be limited to philology and literature alone, but should be in the best sense historical and include all the aspects of the life of the peoples selected. Many students will specialize in some particular field, but all should have a satisfactory

knowledge of the whole and relate any specialized knowledge thereto.

This has, of course, been recognized recently in France by the foundation of a new division in modern language training: civilization, which takes in most of what the report speaks of in addition to the customary divisions of literature and language. This view is also supported by the memorial sent to the committee by the leading professors of Great Britain and Ireland, which makes specific recommendations and changes in staff to correspond to these new aspects of the subject. Only when this is done will modern studies become a means of complete culture and enlightenment.

THE ATTITUDE OF THE PUBLIC TO MODERN STUDIES

or in fact to any studies, is spoken of by the report as needing a great awakening. Probably we must admit the same. Still the present is an admirable time to educate the public up to necessary changes, which makes the responsibility of the intellectual leaders of the people the more pressing. One great factor in this, it must be admitted, is the financial inability of teachers to mingle with the people socially and in other ways in which from time to time matters of this kind could be effectively discust. The recommendation of the committee regarding teachers' salaries, if carried out, will be of great importance in this connection. It is gravely to be doubted that the public would resist the execution of justice of this kind which is so necessary in carrying out any general improvement in a matter which is fundamental in the upbuilding of a democracy. But this is an age of publicity and educational leaders may be naturally expected to bring these points before the public, which, in many respects, is not informed thereon. The splendid war record of teachers and students alike deserves at least that careful consideration be given to their pressing needs for more effective national service at a time when they have been as a class the most opprest financially.

THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE SEVERAL LANGUAGES

This is a question much discust in the press and elsewhere of late, as the public with vague foreboding that all is not well for matters of foreign commerce (which is the usual, tho not the correct, point of departure for discussions of this kind) talks of the educational situation. The report says on this point: "French is by far the most important language in the history of modern civilization." * * * "Not only is French the language of diplomatic intercourse, but in countries where English has not established itself, French is found most commonly useful as an intermediary between any two persons of different nationality." (R., p. 19.)

As far as general linguistic preparedness is concerned this is also valid for the United States. French with English will take one practically anywhere in the world as a means of communication.

Then the complementary character of French with regard to Anglo-Saxondom is clearly pointed out: "In mere matter of language as in other things the two nations seem destined to serve as complementary one to the other. Our careless articulation may be corrected by the studious utterance of the French; our modes of written expression may gain much from study of the perspicuous phrasing, logical construction and harmonious proportions of their prose. From every point of view French is for us above all the most important of living tongues; it has and it should retain, the first place in our schools and universities." (R., p. 19.)

What shall we say further with regard to the United States? It is a hard question to answer dogmatically. Possibly different sections of the country may think differently on the subject. In the past thru our indifference the German language and German methods of study and ideals of education had the first place among foreign influences, pushed into it by a dangerous and subtle and careful propaganda.

French, which does not aim in the slightest at driving out national culture but at supplementing it in various interesting ways, has a very good claim to first place with us. Even from the standpoint of commerce it will unlock more gates, while of course from the point of view of civilization it stands supreme.

"After France all these four countries—Germany, Italy, Spain and Russia—deserve a first class place in the modern studies of our universities." (R., p. 20.)

Those who expect to be carefully trained in the civilization of other chief countries of Europe must also receive very thoro instruction—that is, the whole point of the discussion in the British report. Full facilities must be provided in order that German, Italian and other modern languages be taught in accordance with the main principle that the subject should be treated in a large and comprehensive manner.

MEANS OF INSTRUCTION

The ways in which the ideals discust are to be attained are, as we might expect from the practicality of British character, very fully treated in the report. The points which presumably will be of special interest to Americans are the following:

1. "Facilities for teachers to return to the foreign country from time to time to refresh and increase their knowledge should be granted." (R., p. 23.)

Teachers of foreign languages are at a disadvantage with teachers of other subjects in this way. There is no land of chemistry or of mathematics as there is of France or Italy or Spain. Consequently the teacher of chemistry, for example, has complete facilities when he has his laboratories, journals and books. Not so with the teacher of French or other modern language. For him to return to France often is not only desirable, it is a necessity—and oftener than every seven years and regardless of whether he is a teacher, an instructor or a full professor. The American teacher of modern languages has been at a great

disadvantage also in comparison with his English or European colleagues on account of the distance or more precisely the expense of going to Europe, which he nevertheless must somehow contrive to provide or fall behind in his work. When he does this, he has to save it out of an already small salary—an utterly unfair burden, one that in fact is impossible to the great majority—to the consequent loss of the nation. For the nation should profit greatly by having its few leaders in humanism in such a position that they can associate with the people. The last hope of this is of course taken away by this travel and study incubus on the already heavily burdened shoulders of the modern language professor and teacher.

2. The lack of knowledge of English grammar on the part of university and high school students, due to faulty groundwork in this subject, is mentioned by the report. It is invariably commented upon by teachers of modern languages in the United States. What is really necessary for the student is a more graphic understanding of a comparatively small number of principles rather than a superficial, temporary acquaintance with rare exceptions and odd constructions such as is often presented by texts. As it is now, the foreign language teacher has to make up these deficiencies before proceeding with his special work, which, of course, causes a great loss of time and energy.

The adoption of a uniform grammatical terminology, which is now being discust in various countries, would, like the International Phonetic Alphabet, help a good deal in time-saving and clarity.

A WELL LAID FOUNDATION IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS

This is essential for university teaching. Splendid work is being done by many high schools in this country, but there is unfortunately no uniform standard of excellence which can be relied upon. The problem presented by the appearance in university classrooms of graduates of first-class schools with those from very mediocre ones is too familiar to need extended comment. It must be solved

before real improvement can take place in any complete manner.

As we read the report à propos of the question as to whether a foreign language should be begun at the age of nine or at the age of twelve (recalling also the conditions in France and Germany, for example) we may find it difficult to repress a rueful smile. We have so many university students beginning the languages, in very many cases without that careful foundation produced by a previous mastery of a language.

The Board of Education for England and Wales has lately undertaken to subsidize advanced courses in secondary education in three groups: (1) Classical Humanities, (2) Modern Humanities, (3) Mathematics and Science. Under this plan fewer subjects would be taken by each pupil and greater thoroness attained.

In support of the above contentions, the following extracts from the report are pertinent:

"Homogeneous classes and regular progression of studies are necessary for good progress in all subjects, but they are particularly so in Modern Languages." (R., p. 26.)

"Better to have the full discipline of one language than a fraction of the discipline of several." (R., p. 26.)

"Too many languages are often attempted, and better results would be obtained by more concentration." (R., p. 27.)

HOURS OF STAFF

"Teachers of Modern Languages, who employ the 'direct method' are probably exposed to a greater physical strain than most of their colleagues."

Speaking personally, I can still recall vividly how my high school teacher of French and German worked almost to the point of exhaustion. Theoretically, measured by hours, she was supposed to be doing the same amount of work as any of the other teachers. Actually she was doing more than any other, and easily twice as much as some. It was not due to personal idiosyncrasy—it was the direct method, which took so much more out of her.

Redress will be difficult for obvious reasons, but in the name of fairness to thousands of teachers and in the interest of efficiency, it should be made.

THE UNIVERSITIES

"The universities are the keystone of the whole structure of higher education. To them we must look for the continuous rebirth and renovation of modern studies." (R., p. 41.)

The committee recommends that fifty-five new professorships (at £400) and one hundred and ten new lectureships (at £200)[2] be created of which the allowance for French is to be half as much again as for each of the other four languages (*i. e.*, German, Italian, Spanish and Russian).

Whether teachers should be British or foreign is discust. The conclusion is that (except for certain temporary foreign assistants and in certain exceptional circumstances) university professors and lecturers should be British citizens. Thus Great Britain at length follows the example of Germany and France. A number of reasons are adduced for this, particularly that: "It may be that after the lapse of time he (that is, the foreign teacher) has all the drawbacks of an alien and none of the esoteric knowledge of a native." (R., p. 44.)

"In our opinion modern studies in our universities have suffered greatly in the past thru the absence of British control and direction. The excessive philological and antiquarian bias, which has so long prevailed in modern studies at our universities, can be directly traced to foreign influence."

Whatever may be the situation here regarding the first of these two points there is but little doubt that the "antiquarian bias" spoken of has also existed to a large extent in many American universities probably for the same reason. It is open to serious debate whether this is in accord with American character or American national needs. In par-

[2] An increase of about 183% and 157%, respectively.

ticular there has been in some cases little attempt to give to the study of literature a historical background or to present to students a picture of the life and civilization of the people, whose language is being studied.

SUMMARY

Undoubtedly some conditions are much better in the United States than in Great Britain. But while all of these matters are questions of belief, opinion or mental aim, I submit that the following points regarding American conditions may (especially at this time of national reconstruction) well engage the serious attention both of educational authorities and of the public:

I. Modern Studies have not been in the past, and are not now, provided with the facilities they need or granted the respect which they deserve as formative cultural studies of great charm and true worth.

At a time when an effective counterpoise is greatly needed for materialism and the undoubted trend toward commercialized education, modern studies properly developed and adequately equipt will prove a most valuable aid on the humanistic side of the curriculum.

II. In the high schools the teachers of modern languages should be put in such a position (by being given a restricted number of hours) that they can do better work.

Here, too, specialization should be made more generally possible in the upper grades.

III. The teaching of English grammar needs improvement especially in the early years of instruction.

IV. In the universities the chief needs are:

1. The widening of the scope of the teaching so as to include all of the aspects of the present and past life of the peoples concerned, which includes of course adequate staffing.

2. A definite plan of travel allowances so as to remove the handicap caused American scholars by distance from foreign countries.

V. The awakening of the general public to the needs of

the situation. In this, the wealthiest country in the world, there is no financial reason why reforms so badly needed should lag for lack of money. The public need to know the facts. That they will in turn take action is not to be doubted when we reflect upon the generous and public-spirited character of our citizenship, eager to have its country's institutions administered in the very best manner, and quick to see the far-reaching consequences of needed improvement in the educational facilities of the nation. The example of the keenly studied attention of other nations to this matter will assuredly not leave them indifferent.

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VIII

DISCUSSIONS

THE NEW MEDICINE[1]

DISEASE AS A PROCESS

It does not seem to be generally understood that during the last four years a new medicine has arisen in the world, and effected a fundamental change in the whole attitude to disease. As this is a matter of vital importance, no apology is needed for tracing the steps by which the New Medicine was evolved.

Some years ago disease was supposed generally to be a fixt and certain thing, like a table or a chair. It was supposed to be as easily differentiated as the larger mammals. It was supposed to be either acute or chronic, infectious or non-infectious, curable or incurable. Doctors who failed to apply names to the maladies of their patients were quickly brought to book, because people held that every malady had a name, just as every animal had a name; and the doctor who did not know a camel when he saw it—so to speak—was unskilled in his profession.

This was a very satisfying faith, because once you had the name you could unlock all the secrets. If the name was "dyspepsia," for example, you comforted yourself that there was no need to be alarmed unduly. You might die, but not for a long time; not, in fact, until you had taken bottles and bottles of medicine "for your stomach's sake." If the name was "lumbago," again there was good hope; you could visit spas and be happy more or less. On the other hand, if the name was "Bright's disease" or "heart disease" things were bad indeed. These diseases were notoriously "incurable," and bottles of medicine could do little to alleviate them.

[1] From the Medical Correspondent of the London *Times*.

THE OLD PATHOLOGY

It was not only the public which held this view; the medical profession held it also. Like every view which has gained wide acceptance, there was truth in it; and once upon a time that truth had been living and active. Great thinkers, Bright and Addison and others, seeking for explanations of disease in *post-mortem* rooms, had shown that in those who died in a particular way particular changes were found after death; and they had connected these changes with the symptoms noted in the living, and so built up a science of pathology.

But that science, depending upon the facts of death to explain the facts of life, was bound to be more or less of a transitory character. The facts of life may be cast into relief by the facts of death; they can not thus be elucidated. It was well, perhaps, for the doctor to be able, by means of one or other of a group of tests, to declare that this organ or that organ was definitely diseased. As a general rule, however, all he was saying was that for some reason unexplained the organ had broken down in its work, and become the seat of "fibrous change," just as the feet become the seat of "fibrous change" when corns grow upon them. Indeed, the difference between corns on toes, and corns on heart valves or in kidneys and liver, is merely a difference of location. From their more vital seats "corns" can not be dislodged.

The mischief was that this kind of medical thought led to the vision of trees and not of forests. The fibrous change was apt to become, in that conception, the whole disease, and not, as it certainly is, one of the results of the disease. Doctors thought in organs, hearts and livers and lungs, when they should have been thinking in great bodily changes due to assaults upon the whole organism. It was necessary to remove the tight boots which caused the corns, and not only to deal with the corns themselves.

BACTERIAL INFECTIONS IN THE WAR

Happily, a new wind was blowing across the dead bones. The science of bacteriology had come, and it had been

shown how, after infection with one germ or another, all these fibrous changes, which were called disease, could arise. The literature of tuberculosis was enormous before Koch discovered the tubercle bacillus; but that literature dealt in organs and fibrous changes. Since Koch these manifestations have been relegated to a second place—their proper place. And the same applies to syphilis. As, however, there were large groups of diseases in which no bacterial explanation of fibrous changes was immediately forthcoming, the old conceptions prevailed. Heart disease was still looked upon as a fact of life to be explained by the facts of death, and so were kidney disease and liver disease, and other conditions.

And then the war came, and, suddenly, life triumphed over death. For the war revealed young men with all the symptoms of heart disease, kidney disease, and so on. The symptoms and the signs were present; but the fibrous change had not appeared.

In other words, the idea that it was the fibrous change, and the fibrous change alone, which caused the signs and symptoms, could no longer be held. For here were the signs and symptoms without any fibrous change. "Soldier's heart," "trench nephritis," and the rest of them, sounded the death-knell of life-in-terms-of-death explanations. The majority of these men, with the symptoms and signs of advanced and incurable disease, made good recoveries—or, in other words, regained their usual powers.

So it was necessary to look for a new explanation, and to adopt a new conception. Happily, there was not, in some instances, far to look. Dysentery, trench fever, scarlet fever, diphtheria, and other diseases, were seen to be followed by heart troubles and other organ troubles with great regularity—it was no new observation, but now it came with overwhelming force. The conception clarified that these diseases of organs were due to the invasion of the body by germs, and that long, long before the fibrous change occurred, the body was engaged in a grim fight for life, with resulting impairment of function.

Here was the New Medicine—the conception of disease as a long process, possibly a life-long process, with, as the end, phenomena of the process, the fibrous changes. The great truth—treat infections, not symptoms of infection—emerged. Better still, prevent the infections altogether. It became evident that many of the so-called appearances of disease—*e. g.*, the fibrous changes—are really but signs of the struggle nature is making, day and night, against disease. To "treat" these is like cutting away the props from an unsteady house, with the idea that the props are the cause of the unsteadiness.

The New Medicine does not shake its head over heart murmurs; it attempts to find the infection which is causing the trouble and to eradicate it. The infection may be in the teeth, or throat, or alimentary tract. The pioneer researches of Sir Arbuthnot Lane have already pointed the way in this direction. But there are still weary miles to be traversed before the nation as a whole awakes to the possibilities presented. The shining truth that, if we can prevent or stay infection, we can probably prevent all the effects of infection—that is to say, the bulk of disease —has not yet been seen by all. When it is seen it will no longer be necessary to conduct an A1 Empire on a C3 population.

A NEW FORM OF SCHOOL CONTEST

No longer is an apology needed for utilizing play in education. All satisfying play must necessarily possess educational possibilities, because alertness, skill, foresight, speed, accuracy and fairness are the traits or habits which are actively concerned and stimulated. While play forms an indispensable part of the program of the kindergarten and the primary grades, it has not come to its own in the upper grades of our schools. Not that these older children do not play sufficiently, but their play has a physical rather than a mental motivization.

In order that school exercises may lend themselves to the commonly established customs of play, it is necessary

that the unit exercise be short and perfectly definite and that the method to be used in the game be rather easily perceived by all the players. The game then consists in quickness of comprehending a given situation, of agility in performing the assigned task, or of skill in obtaining the most counts, or points, in the time assigned. These conditions apply to games which engage large groups of players, the most useful type of contest for classroom use.

Many of the studies of the high school curriculum, at least in part, may easily be arranged in games, opening a wide field in methodology which has hardly been touched. Many teachers here and there have doubtless invented and used simple games to excite interest and give variety to the ordinary hum-drum of the classroom. When interclass or interschool games can be scheduled or a meet arranged the interest is increased to white heat. The large city high schools afford an attractive opportunity for this type of school activity. The Spring Sports of the Mathematics Department of the William Penn High School for Girls, of Philadelphia, give one illustration of this new form of school exercise.

The Spring Sports are an imitation of the familiar track meet where boys contest for supremacy in running, jumping, and other athletics. The following events have been used in our mathematics contests: addition in several forms, subtraction combined with addition and multiplication, percentage, simple interest, bills with discount, equations of varied type, and geometric exercises.

Our plan of organizing and conducting the Sports may be of interest. A department meeting decides upon the events to be scheduled and the type of question that is to be used in each contest. Sufficient variety is used to bring one or more events within the prescribed work of every mathematical class. The arithmetical events are from the work of the commercial classes while the algebraic events attract the general academic students. This selection of the material from the usual work of the classes accomplishes two purposes: first, it secures the needful famil-

iarity essential to successful games; second, the time occupied in the games may be credited to drill in the regular course rather than be considered as an extra burden imposed upon the teacher and a loss of time to the pupils. We have many short events lasting from three to five minutes rather than a few long ones. We therefore use simple questions such as the following:

Current Balance. Find the current balance of the debits and credits for each date given below; check the final balance by subtracting the totals of the credits from the total of the debits.

Date	Debit	Credit	Current Balance
1918, March 1	$126.65	$86.44	
March 2	46.04	50.00	
etc.	etc.	etc.	(We usually give about ten items)

Promissory Note. Find the net proceeds from the following note if discounted May 1st, 1918, at 6 percent:

PHILADELPHIA, April 19, 1918

Sixty days after date I promise to pay to the order of James Brown, THREE HUNDRED FOURTEEN DOLLARS, without defalcation for value received.

$314.00 GEORGE WHITE

Commission. Find the total remittance from an agent to his principal, if the agent retained $45.00 as his $2\frac{1}{2}$ percent commission for selling a consignment of grain.

Simple Interest. Find the total of the following items:

Principal	Time	Rate	Interest
$4500	75 days	6%	
480	32 days	5%	
78.50	1 yr 3 mo 10 da	$4\frac{1}{2}$%	

Simultaneous Linear Equations. Solve to one decimal.

$$6.2 \times - 0.3\,y = 19.4$$
$$.6 \times + 5.2\,y = -0.7$$

Geometry. Find the segments into which the bisector of the angle Z divides the side a of the triangle ABC, if $a = 18$, $b = 15$, $c = 12$.

If the computation involved in the question takes less

than one minute there is increased difficulty in deciding the priority of rapid contestants. For this reason we sometimes combine two or three similar or related questions in one event, requiring the correct solution of all.

The number of contestants in the Sports is limited only by the size of the room or auditorium in which they are conducted. Our contestants work on chair-desks placed on the stage of our large auditorium and arranged in schoolroom fashion with sufficient aisle space to permit easy egress from every chair; experience shows that we can readily let forty contest simultaneously, tho in some events, by other arrangements which will be explained later, we can enter one hundred or more. Nothing but the time involved would preclude the division of the event into "heats."

The great enthusiasm awakened by the contests usually will develop more candidates than desired. Hence a few days before the Sports preliminary races are required in the classrooms to reduce the contestants to a suitable number. The two, three, or four speediest in each section are selected to meet their peers in the final public contest. These preliminaries and the practise which generally precedes them afford excellent drill in rapid work. Accuracy, of course, is insisted upon; any error is a "foul" and at once disqualifies the player in that particular race. We usually arrange so that each section can enter two or three events. It is an excellent social exercise for the class to close its own officials for the preliminaries and to make its own decisions as to the fastest contestants to represent it in the Sports. Sometimes a bright member may represent the class in several events, but usually the honors are divided among as large a number as possible.

Printed invitations to parents and friends giving the program of events and if possible the list of contestants, find a generous response in a large and enthusiastic audience. The meet must be carefully arranged and completely officered to avoid vexatious delays and loss of time. We have developed this rather formidable staff: announcer, starter, referee, two or more judges, linesmen, two mark-

ers, a stockkeeper, some timekeepers, a recorder, and a scribe. To keep close to the athletic atmosphere the announcer uses a whistle to start the meet and to summon the contestants to the platform for the successive events. The starter must likewise use a whistle. When the contestants have been seated, the announcer makes any necessary statements and explanations to them; the mimeographed or printed question or problem, face-down, is then distributed by the linesmen. When all are ready, the whistle blows and the race is on.

After finishing, the contestant quickly rises and the judges call "one," indicating that this contestant is first in the line to the markers; the next up is "two," and takes second place in the line; the next, "three," and so on. The rivalry is often so close that it is necessary for each of the judges to watch certain rows of chairs and call only when one of her group rises. In cases of dispute, the decision of the referee is final. In five years' experience, only once has the referee required a repetition of the race to secure a just award. The linesmen assist in forming the line from the numbers called by the judges. The markers, previously provided with the correct solutions, can be conveniently placed at the stage entrance. The first, second, and third correct contestant can quickly be selected from the line. These three placemen then present their identification cards, giving their names, sections, and other data, to the recorder, who keeps the list of place winners. When three correct solutions have been secured, or sooner if the time is considered too slow, the whistle blows to stop the event. The timekeepers use stop watches to get the time of the place winners. Sometimes this is not so easy, but until such work is standardized the time is of no vital importance. It is merely part of the athletic atmosphere. When the event is completely recorded, the scribe writes the names of the placemen and their times on the blackboard in view of the audience. Loud clappings greet the victors, especially from the groups which they represent.

As was the case in the Greek games, our prizes are modest.

Each first place is awarded a blue ribbon rosette with streamers; each second, a red rosette; each third a similar white rosette. Sectional prizes in the form of pennants or posters fittingly lettered are awarded according to the number of points secured by the section. For this purpose every first counts three points, each second two, each third one. The awarding of the prizes takes place subsequently at some morning assembly of the entire school. Our girls are proud to wear the rosettes and the sectional posters or pennants decorate the rooms in which the fortunate sections receive their mathematical instruction.

We have introduced some novelties into our Sports which have attracted a wider publicity than their merit justifies. The first of these is our Relay Race and the second is our grand *finale*, the Concentration, or Distraction Race. The Relay may take a great variety of form. We have applied it to an ordinary bill of several items with discounts and credits. Our teams consist of four chosen from the same section. The first member of the team makes the extensions of the bill, the second totals the extensions, the third applies the chain discounts, and the fourth, or captain, applies the credits, thus completing the bill. The team should be seated in single file, number one in the rear, the captain in front. The printed or mimeographed bill, with a given line of discounts and stated credits all on it, is distributed face down to number one of each team. After the signal to start number one quickly completes the extensions and passes the bill to her teammate in front of her, and so on until the captain completes the bill and takes her place in the marking line. We are able to seat twenty teams in the first four rows of our auditorium, which gives the captains the free space of the cross aisle just in front of the stage. We then let the captains, after finishing, race for position in the marking line instead of having the judges call the places; the resulting scramble lends variety and adds to the fun.

The Concentration, or Distraction Race, like the other events, has a distinct educational motive—namely, self-

control to do the work assigned under adverse conditions. The problem may be of any kind; we have selected the addition of about thirty numbers, each number to consist of at least three and not more than seven digits. For distraction we use a piano plus a comic band of organ pipes, horns, megaphones, dishpans, and automobile horns—all generously assisted by the shouts and laughter of the audience. This event is so popular that we place our many contestants in the seats of the auditorium that are next to the long aisles. When they have finished, they race for position in the marking line like the captains in the Relay. The concentration question is placed in an envelope to avoid any unfair advantage. Care on the part of the officers prevents any envelope being opened until the whistle gives the signal to start the race and the noise. One marvels that any contestant will stick to the race in such a din, but our girls are not slackers or quitters; they take this contest as seriously as tho their very lives depended upon it.

We realize that such contests should be given but a subordinate place in the work of any school, yet school life like life in the world at large becomes more and more highly diversified and the time is at hand when recreation of an educational type will form part of the program of every school.

JONATHAN T. RORER

WILLIAM PENN HIGH SCHOOL
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

IX

REVIEWS

Outline of applied sociology. By Henry Pratt Fairchild. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916. 353 p. $1.75.

An introduction to educational sociology. By Walter Robinson Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1917. 412 p. $1.75.

These two books are of somewhat unequal value. The first attempts the difficult task of dealing, in a single volume, with the entire field of so-called applied sociology. The second, which forms one of the excellent Riverside Text-books in Education, edited by Professor E. P. Cubberly of Teachers College, deals in a modest but relatively thoro manner with a much more limited subject, namely, the application of sociological principles to educational theory and practise.

According to Professor Fairchild "applied sociology has to do with the task of examining the human relationships of modern civilized societies with the avowed purpose of evaluating them, of distinguishing helpful tendencies and forces from those which are pernicious, and of devising means to perpetuate that which is good, to eliminate that which is bad and to reshape the social organization the better to serve human welfare." The activities of human societies may be classified, he says, into the divisions, economic life, growth of population, esthetic life, intellectual and spiritual life. For this reason *Applied sociology* is divided into corresponding categories. To the first two categories are devoted some two hundred and fifty pages; to the others, a total of somewhat less than thirty. Standard of living, destitution, marriage, migration, disease and immorality, are among the more important chapter headings. There is much useful information in the book and discriminating teachers will use it to advantage. Their procedure will probably fulfil the author's anticipation that

"this volume will render its most efficient service when used in connection with other books dealing in detail with specific subjects."

Professor Smith approaches his subject matter very cautiously. Calling his book an introduction, he more than once refers to it as a preliminary study "leaving to a later date a scientific and logical treatise on the principles of educational sociology." In spite of this, however, the volume is likely to be a standard text in the subject for some time to come. Its present usefulness to students of education of college rank is unquestionable. As the editor remarks in the preface, "our schools have in the past drawn their chief inspiration from psychology and the problem of instruction has been dealt with as tho education were almost entirely an individual matter. . . . The new science of sociology, by contrast, deals with groups rather than with individuals and with the needs of society and the state, and any application of this science to the educational process must of necessity shift attention and emphasis from the individual to the needs of society in the large. . . . This is a point of view with which those responsible for the organization and administration of public education can hardly become too familiar."

The book is divided into two nearly equal parts, Sociological Foundations and Educational Applications. Basing his discussion in the first part upon the notion that association is the fundamental fact of sociology, Professor Smith emphasizes Professor Cooley's contention that small face-to-face or "primary" groups are the creators of primary virtues such as sympathy, fairness, loyalty, tolerance and service, and that primary groups are the original means whereby the individual is prepared for more complex social cooperation. Special analysis is given such primary groups as the family and play-group in relation to the community as a whole, including the state, and, in addition, to "intermediate groups," *i. e.*, clubs, churches, labor unions, fraternal associations and the like. The specific tasks of formal education in relation to all of these groups

and to the general problem of creating a democratic society receive constant attention. In the second part the same point of view is retained, but emphasis is placed chiefly upon the technique of utilizing group resources in school administration. Methods of socializing education by means of social and school surveys, vocational guidance, discipline, curriculum and administration are discust in detail. Wide use is made of standard educational and sociological authors. References in the text itself are frequent and up to date. Additional readings selected for each chapter are discriminating. The special topics for discussion and investigation suggested for each main subject will prove of great advantage to the teacher.

In view of the author's exprest hope for a future "scientific and logical" volume on the application of sociological theory to education, detailed criticism would be ungracious. When the future volume appears it will doubtless avoid much of the repetition that occurs in the present book and, possibly, will give more attention to the necessity of adapting educational theory and practise not only to different types of society, but also to the rapidly changing needs and ideals of civilization itself.

ALVAN A. TENNEY

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Hygiene and war. By GEORGE ELLIS JONES. The Carnegie Endowment, Washington, D. C. 210 p.

This very useful pamphlet of 210 pages contains a large amount of information, and an extensive bibliography of 464 titles, relating to the lessons which war teaches with reference to health.

The specific educational purpose of this bulletin is explained under the title in the words Suggestions for Makers of Text Books and for Use in Schools.

In the introduction Professor Burnham states:

1. War emphasizes certain essential hygienic precautions.

2. War contributes to hygiene the discovery of certain important sanitary measures, methods, and devices.

3. On the other hand, war causes a serious setback to the

battle which hygiene is constantly waging against the enemies of man's health.

Attention is called in the introduction to the recently published book *Insects and Man*, in which C. A. England, the author, describes so graphically the conflict between man and insect for the possession of the earth.

"A war to be waged, not between man and man, but between Man on the one side and the Arthropod on the other, a war to be fought to the finish to decide which of the two forms of life, this highly developed vertebrate, or these malignly evolved invertebrates, is to govern our planet. Is the Lord of this earth some day to be a monstrous ant or bug, a wasp or a midge, a scale-insect or a tick—or is it to be this godlike mammal who walks erect and can see the stars and weigh the suns and planets, who is already in touch with the supra-mundane universe?"

Professor Burnham makes a strong plea for an adequate attention to school hygiene, the necessity for which is emphasized in so many ways by this altogether unprecedented and instructive war. The proposition is submitted that perhaps the best substitute for war in a peaceful and constructive period of civilization will be a comprehensive program of physical education and hygienic practise for children and adults, which will be really adequate to human needs.

The body of this interesting report, prepared by Dr. Jones, presents an interesting array of information gathered from many sources regarding the following topics: Destructiveness of war thru diseases and other forms of physical injury; types of diseases and wounds; suffering of non-combatants; food problems arising out of war; effects upon morale and morals; elimination of the fit; eugenics and war; benefits to the people if efforts now expended upon soldiers were expended upon the general population; character of the soldier's training in hygiene; problems in military sanitation.

The extensive bibliography included in the report is valuable to all those interested in health matters.

The war has made history as fast in the realm of hygiene as in other phases of vital concern to humanity that any report of this kind must be inevitably provisional in character and subject to supplement and revisions. But it is vitally important that intelligent people should learn the lessons of the great conflict as rapidly as possible.

This bulletin provides a timely epitome of significant facts and opinions concerning one of the most significant subjects that can engage the attention of students of human progress.

THOMAS D. WOOD

TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Teaching hygiene in the grades—By MACE ANDRESS. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1918. 167 p. 80 c.

It is appropriate that one of the books in this series of monographs for teachers should be devoted to the subject of health teaching in the elementary grades.

Accumulating evidence indicates convincingly that this very fundamental subject in the curriculum is much slighted by teachers even yet, and the great majority of attempts in the past to teach hygiene, if tested by achievements in human conduct, have resulted in a high percentage of partial or complete failures. Some improvements have occurred in recent years in the materials and methods of health teaching, but as yet only a moderate beginning has been made in the development of a satisfactory program of health education.

The author pursues a logical course in the development of his argument. He introduces the theme by justifying the subject of hygiene as a topic of fundamental importance in the course of study. It is strange, but true, that this subject needs justification. The necessity for such justification, however, arises partly from the fact that traditional textbooks and pedagogy, available until recently in the health field, contributed so largely to unsuccessful results

In considering the Goals of Instruction, the author sums

up the case in this sentence: "Considering the importance of health to the individual and society, can there be any doubt that the formation of health habits takes precedence over any other kind of instruction or training given in the school?"

The chapters on Methods and Important Problems present a wide range of valuable and suggestive material, but at the same time are likely to leave most teachers confused regarding a definite and confident line of procedure for any specific grade or group. Some of this uncertainty is inevitable in this comparatively early stage in the development of real hygiene teaching.

Again the reader may very reasonably wonder why the particular topics were selected and stress in the special arrangement and sequence proposed in the brief course of health study outlined for the first four grades.

A useful and sufficiently, if not perplexingly comprehensive list of references is included in the monograph.

The spirit of this brief professional treatise is modern. The point of view is sensible. Application of material and method advocated will result in marked improvement in health teaching in the schools. THOMAS D. WOOD

TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The melodic method in school music—By DAVID C. TAYLOR. The Macmillan Company, 1918. 171 p.

The *melodic method in school music* is well worth reading not only by music teachers but by all those interested in school music, because of the stress the author puts on the large essential aspects of the subject. He claims that "modern conditions oblige education to take account of the emotional life, and to provide for its proper regulation." "Music has a definite function in modern education. Its purpose is: (1) To train the child in the habits of healthful emotional activity; (2) to furnish him with the foundation of a cultured taste, which will enable him in all his later life to take full advantage of the opportunities for healthful

emotional recreation afforded by the most potent of the arts." This gives music a peculiar importance in a time when the drift is more than ever towards practical subjects, leaving the development of the emotional side to chance experience of the individual. Conduct and efficiency, as the author shows, depend quite as much on how we feel as on what we know. If music is to accomplish this high mission in education it must appeal thru its beauty to the child, hence the need for the use of good music.

In the same way, the author emphasizes the importance of making the music self-expressive. He says, very justly, that "we do not care particularly what the composer felt. What we want in listening to music is to feel deeply ourselves." Beautiful sound itself is essential for this emotional stimulus. Hence the need for good tone production.

In connection with this central thought the author lays great stress on the necessity for awakening a love for music in children. It is thru this awakening that the effectiveness of music in healthy emotional training and stimulation is to be developed. Evidently the wish to stimulate the child's love of music thru melody is the reason for the title of the book. Even in the study of sight singing Mr. Taylor emphasizes the esthetic and appreciative rather than the intellectual approach. He says, "We must develop in the child a feeling for the logical and symmetrical character of each melody. We do this not by explanation, not by pointing out the grouping of the phrases. That would indeed defeat our purpose. Instead, we simply present each melody as a thing to be enjoyed and loved for its own beauty. The feeling for inherent, logical, melodic outline develops of its own accord. As the feeling is quickened, the influence on the ability to read a melody is increased." This is along the modern ideas of reading by thought rather than by spelling out and should be carefully considered by those who are teaching sight reading.

There is, however, a danger of carrying this analogy to reading too far. The notes in music are not the equivalent of letters in print. Take, for instance, the letters d o g.

They always stand for the same thing, but the notes "c e g" stand only for given pitch relationships. The metrical and durative changes that can be introduced into these same three notes so alter their character that their effect is totally different and the less musical the pupil is, the more often he is confused by these other aspects of the notes. In other words, the notes in music represent three different kinds of measurements, such as pitch, duration, and stress or meter, which must be combined before a musical thought can be conceived. Hence the need arises for a much more precise knowledge of these various functions of the notes than the mere knowing of the letter combinations of the alphabet in words. The main contention, however, under the word-symbol method as advocated is a good one. Fortunately there seems to be a trend that way at present. The latest successful music readers are along this line of procedure.

There is good sense in the author's standard for sight reading. He says, "We can not hope to teach children to read a line of melody with the same facility they will possess in reading a printed sentence. The best we can aim at is a certain degree of facility in reading notes. If on finishing the school course, a child can take up an average piece of music without great difficulties of time, intervals, or modulation, and after going over it two or three times can sing or whistle the melody correctly, he has learned enough of musical technique for the purposes of general education." This would hardly be satisfactory for a standard, for those who take up sight reading seriously. Yet it would seem a more sensible thing to increase our demand with reference to tone and artistic singing and reduce what we require with reference to notation work. This would give more time for a part of the work that is decidedly weak.

We can not agree with the author that the grade teacher can better handle the tone production aspect of school music than the note reading. The educational equipment and training of the average teacher fits her much better for the systematic work of notation than it does for tone

production or taste in musical expression. Only where the teacher herself has had vocal training can this side of the work be adequately handled.

We seriously question the suggestion of beating time for the children. Why, if we ask the pupils to think the intervals, would we not also ask them to think time values rather than indicate them by beating or tapping. If appreciation is the main purpose of the work this would seem to be quite as necessary. So it is with reference to the mental effect of the tones of the scale. The author gives some clever names by which to remember them. This problem has been effectively worked out in the Tonic Sol-fa method. These are questions, however, in regard to presentation of details and have been fully dealt with in other works.

The value of *The melodic method* is the emphasis that is placed on the purpose of school music and its need to be beautiful and interesting.

CHARLES H. FARNSWORTH
TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

No more sturdy book about the war has yet appeared in English than *Over there with the Australians*, by the scout Captain R. Hugh Knyvett, who unhappily died of a disease contracted while in service in France. (New York. Charles Scribner's Sons. 340 p. $1.50.)

A philosophical study of the war and its attendant circumstances and conditions is offered by the well-known historian Guglielmo Ferrero in a volume entitled *Europe's fateful hour*. (New York. Dodd, Mead & Company. 1918. 242 p. $2.00.)

Professor John Spencer Bassett, of Smith College, in his *Lost fruits of Waterloo* tries to find in the history of the last hundred years the threads that will guide the world in dealing with the obstacles and difficulties of a federated peace, now that Germany has been defeated. (New York. The Macmillan Company. 258 p. $1.50.)

Dean Bell, of the Catholic Church, Fond-du-Lac, Wisconsin, presents an elementary consideration of Christian morals in the light of a social problem in a well-written

little book entitled *Right and wrong after the war.* (Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1918. 187 p. $1.25.)

Students of modern European history will hail with satisfaction a capital *Bohemian bibliography,* being the finding list of writings in English relating to the Bohemians and Cechs by Thomas Capek and Anna V. Capek. It is, so far as we know, the only book of its kind. (New York. The Fleming H. Revell Company. 1918. 256 p.)

The second volume of the *Cambridge history of American literature* fully sustains what was said in these pages of the first volume on its appearance a year ago. This second volume deals with what is called Early National Literature and with the first part of Later National Literature down to the end of the nineteenth century. There are careful chapters on Thoreau, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Whittier and Poe; on a group of publicists and orators who made the first half of the nineteenth century famous; on Webster; on the early historians; on Prescott and Motley; on the early humorists; on the divines and moralists from Timothy Dwight to Mark Hopkins; on writers of familiar verse from Homes to Eugene Field and Bunner; on Whitman, on Lanier, and on various groups of authors, all thoroly well and interestingly done. We repeat that as a book of reference these volumes are invaluable. (New York. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1918. 658 p. $3.50.)

An interesting combination of historical and literary study is offered in the doctor's dissertation of Mr. Edwin H. Zeydel, of the University of Minnesota, who has taken as his topic *The Holy Roman Empire in German literature.* (NewYork. Columbia University Press. 1918. 144 p. $1.00.)

Books are coming from the press with great rapidity on modern history written from various points of view. Professor Roscoe L. Ashley is the author of a stout textbook for secondary schools entitled *Modern European civilization.* He traces the development of European life and thought from the seventeenth century to the present day, and follows the course of the great war substantially to its conclusion. (New York. The Macmillan Company. 1918. 710 p. $1.80.)

X

NOTES AND NEWS

Moral values in secondary education

Bulletin 51, series of 1917, of the United States Bureau of Education, is a report prepared by Henry Neumann, Ethical Culture School, New York City, of the commission on the reorganization of secondary education appointed by the National Education Association, on Moral Values in Secondary Education.

The intention of the bulletin, it is stated, is the admirable one of stimulating the thought of teachers in discovering their innumerable opportunities for quickening the conscience and clarifying the moral vision of their pupils. The aim of the secondary school, it explains, should be to equip our pupils as fully as possible with the habits, knowledge and ideals of what is required for right living together in a democracy, to encourage a disposition toward worthy initiative and cooperation, and to provide, at an impressionable time of life, opportunities for their practise.

The author considers in its various aspects the question of distinct courses in moral instruction, and concludes that in the hands of teachers who possess special knowledge and special skill such courses offer a greater chance than incidental instruction to develop the broad principles that growth in character demands.

With regard to the moral values in pupil activities, first in importance as a moral agency should be placed the actual performances of the pupils themselves. They should be given every possible chance to participate in the management of the school life, and encouragement should be given to cooperative enterprises in aid of philanthropies and other forms of civic welfare. Emphasis, however, is placed upon the importance of interpreting experience and the danger

of relying too exclusively upon it, and new ideals must be suggested.

Considerable space is given in the report, and this is by no means its least valuable part, to the ethical values inherent in the various studies: social studies, literature, which is especially rich in ethical values, foreign languages, English composition, household arts, natural science, mathematics, art, vocational guidance and education, and physical education. The closing chapter is devoted to the teaching staff. The series of reports of the commission to which this last issue belongs is notably sane and suggestive along fundamentally important lines that in the past history of secondary education have sometimes been neglected. The present report is one of the best of the series. "No series of reports, however," aptly says the chairman of the commission in the preface to the pamphlet, "could compass the rich opportunities of the secondary school for developing the ethical life of young people."

Liberal and vocational studies

A recent publication of Leland Stanford University in the University Series contains an interesting discussion of Liberal and Vocational Studies in the College by Henry Waldgrave Stuart, Professor of Philosophy. The author does not consider the subject from the point of view of the old controversy as to the relative merits of literary and scientific studies in the college course, which we all recall, but from the more timely standpoint of the relation of liberal and vocational studies in a rational program of higher education. As he himself states it, the question in reality is whether citizenship in the modern world can be based upon the mere contemplation, criticism and trained enjoyment of life, or requires a capacity for constructive participation in the activities of life as well.

His conclusions are that vocational education, even of the best type, leaves without adequate recognition and cultivation those interests which find expression in the social life as a whole, and in the higher responsibilities of citizen-

ship. The deficiencies that arise from a vocational education, only, will, furthermore, not be made good automatically in the normal subsequent experience of the average man The education requisite to make good such deficiencies is of a type distinct from the vocational, and not more education of the vocational type itself. Vocational studies, it is well stated, taken in their broadest scope supply a knowledge of or about the means and machinery of life. Liberal studies supply a direct and immediate acquaintance with the characteristic interests and experiences of life.

If a vocationally centered education, however, is deficient, the author proceeds to state, so is a purely liberal education thru its exclusion of vocational elements. Liberal education is not really adequate and thoro on its own ground if it fails to recognize "vocation" as a characteristic and universal human interest. In point of fact, he assures us, the vocational interest affords a favorable opening for the presentation of the liberal subjects.

What the author has in mind, it is explained, is a broadly humanistic conception of culture, according to which culture signifies a disciplined capability for life or conduct in the individual as a member of society. In this sense, culture must inevitably comprise both liberal and scientific discipline, since effective conduct presupposes in every case both the intelligent formation of a purpose to be carried out and a knowledge of the ways and means upon which its accomplishment depends.

Conceiving it, in this way, the evidence of culture in the individual consists in the responsive fulfilment of his personal functions in the society in which he lives, and the products, consequently, of the culture of the past can not possibly serve him as absolute standards for the present. Our present age, it is stated in ultimate conclusion, being one of social idealism and of increasing application of the resources of nature to human ends, it is essential that our ideal of education and of personal culture should embody, in close and well-balanced cooperation, the liberal and vocational elements– a decision logical from the reason-

ing of the author, and readily forseen in any broad educational outlook.

Summer sessions of city schools

Bulletin 45, series of 1917, of the United States Bureau of Education is a consideration with statistics of the whole matter of summer sessions of city schools, by W. S. Deffenbaugh of the Bureau. The need of a longer school term, the pamphlet explains, has become a matter of wide-spread public concern. A reduction in school time in the shortening of session hours, the introduction of additional holidays, and particularly in the lengthening of the summer vacation, has come about so gradually that the extent of it has not been generally recognized. The effects of the long vacations, the author goes on to say, have begun to excite serious apprehension, and in many cities remedial action has been taken. Suggestions for a longer term for all pupils occasionally appear, but in general the remedies proposed are palliative only, and are directed to specific symptoms. A few cities have organized some schools on the all-the-year plan, and have thus attacked the evil at its foundation. Many others conduct vacation schools for a few weeks, principally to keep children off the streets and to supervise their play; still others maintain a summer session of about six weeks to give children who have failed in one or more subjects an opportunity to make up their deficiencies, to enable those who are weak in some subjects to gain strength, and to aid those who are especially strong to obtain an extra promotion.

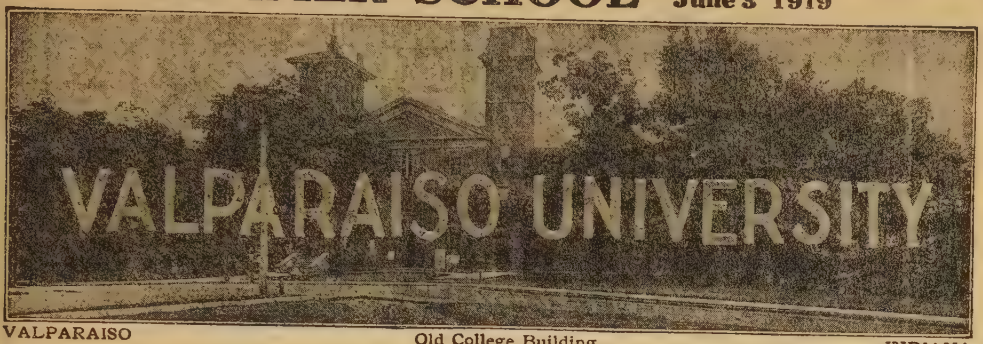
The first summer vacation schools were opened in Providence, R. I., in 1871. Since 1900 their increase in number thruout the country has been rapid. In answer to a questionnaire, 109 cities now report summer high schools, and 211 summer elementary schools. All-year schools, as a growth of the summer schools, have also been established in various places. The author considers the whole matter from the various points of view of attendance, educational value, the health of the pupils, and the financial cost of

the undertaking to the community. It is concluded that the educational value of summer sessions both in high schools and elementary schools as organized is indisputable, that the health of the pupils is in no degree impaired, and that an actual saving is made of the city's money.

In a majority of the cities considered the summer schools are open for a term of six weeks. In 75 cities the high school summer session may be attended by any pupil; in the others only by those who have failed or by those who are exceptionally bright. In 68 cities summer sessions of the elementary schools are for all grades from the fourth to the eighth, inclusive. In the others that maintain these schools the summer session is usually for children in the intermediate or grammar grades, or both. In 95 cities, summer schools are maintained for any children within the grades admitted to the schools during the regular term; in others, as in the case of the high schools, the summer elementary schools are usually for those pupils who have failed, or in some of them both for those who have failed and for those who are especially bright. In the opinion of the Bureau of Education, as exprest by the Commissioner in his letter of transmittal of the report, the movement should be encouraged.

SUMMER SCHOOL

OPENS
June 3 1919



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Teachers will find an exceptional opportunity to combine work in the regular departments with such review work as they may desire. This is because of the fact that during the summer term the regular work of the University is offered the same as during the other terms of the year. Many enter for review work only. Others by attending consecutive summer sessions complete a course of study while others enter to take up special subjects.

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